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ABSTRACT

From 1974 through 1976, a program to test the feasibility of vouchering manpower training was incorporated into the existing Work Incentive (WIN) program in Portland, Oregon. The purpose of the second phase of the program was to evaluate the feasibility of incorporating vouchers into an on-the-job (OJT) program as an optional component that clients could choose. (Phase one dealt with the evaluation of vouchered training offered by educational institutions.) Vouchers were issued to a total of 345 clients. Training and follow-up data were collected for them and for a group of 139 WIN clients who were placed in regular OJT slots during the same period. Voucher clients experienced considerable difficulty in obtaining training positions; those who did succeed in making use of the voucher tended to locate more desirable positions than regular trainees in terms of pay and occupational preference. Dropout rates and longer-term labor force participation and welfare dependency did not differ significantly for the two groups. (Author/JH)

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CLIENTS' EXPERIENCES WITH VOUCHERED ON-THE-JOB TRAINING IN THE PORTLAND WIN PROGRAM

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ABSTRACT

From 1974 through 1976, a program to test the feasibility of vouchering manpower training was incorporated into the existing WIN (Work Incentive) program in Portland, Oregon. The present study deals with the second phase of the voucher program under which on-the-job training (OJT) was vouchered. Vouchers were issued to a total of 345 clients, and training and follow-up data were collected for them and for a group of 139 WIN clients who were placed in regular OJT slots during the same period. Voucher clients experienced considerable difficulty in obtaining training positions; those who did succeed in making use of the voucher tended to locate more desirable positions than regular trainees in terms of pay and occupational preference. Dropout rates and longer-term labor force participation and welfare dependency did not differ significantly for the two groups.

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This is the last of a series of reports on several studies to test the feasibility of introducing vouchers for skill training in the WIN (Work Incentive) Program. These studies were funded under Grant Number 51-11-73-02 from the Employment and Training Administration, U.S. Department of Labor. BSSR's Study Directors for the project were Laure M. Sharp and Ann Richardson.

The present report reflects the contributions of a number of current and former staff members. Thelma Myint was chiefly responsible for the analysis of the data pertaining to training experiences and outcomes (Chapters 3 and 4). Bruce Dunning prepared drafts on participants' characteristics and post-training outcomes (Chapter 2, 5 and 6). Ruth Parsons provided valuable research assistance for these six chapters, which Douglas Wulf integrated into the draft of the present final report, for which he also drafted Chapters 1 and 7. Ann Richardson supervised the planning of the data analysis, and reviewed early drafts of the materials prepared by Myint and Dunning. John Weidman helped to plan the final report. Responsibility for the final draft was in the hands of Laure M. Sharp.

Because this project was active for more than five years, the cast of characters in Washington and in Portland associated with its various phases was so large that it is impossible to acknowledge the help of all participants fully and adequately. At the Employment and Training Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, we wish to express our thanks to Howard Rosen and Mervin F. Hans and especially to Jack Newman who worked closely with us throughout the life of the project, but many other staff members were also extremely helpful. The members of our Oregon field staff which consisted of Tim Gallegher, James Unger and Ian Smethurst deserve special credit, as do the many counselors and administrators in the Portland WIN office and in the WIN State and Regional Offices (Oregon and Region X) who worked with us while the demonstration was in progress, and facilitated its operation.

Last but not least, we wish to thank the BSSR coding and data processing staff as well as the members of our production unit, and especially Eunice Oberg who was responsible for the technical preparation of this report.

But our greatest debt is to the WIN clients--those who experimented with vouchers as well as those who participated in the regular WIN OJT program--without whose time, cooperation and frank assessment this study would have been impossible.

CLIENTS' EXPERIENCES WITH VOUCHERED ON-THE-JOB TRAINING IN THE PORTLAND WIN PROGRAM

Executive Summary

Introduction

This is a report of a survey of Portland, Oregon, WIN clients who participated in an experimental on-the-job (OJT) training program designed to test the feasibility of introducing a voucher system for the purchase of skill training. The following are the general assumptions underlying such a voucher system:

> Vouchering is a mechanism for modifying the relationships between public agencies and their clients by replacing the provision of goods and services in kind with a certificate or some form of authorization which will permit the client to select and "purchase" what is needed from some range of goods or services as well as from a more or less specified range of vendors. Proponents of vouchering hypothesize that its application will, on the demand side, broaden the range of services and vendors available to clients, increase chances of meeting the clients' needs adequately as they choose their own services and vendors, and enhance clients' self-esteem, sense of personal efficacy and commitment by allowing them to make their own decisions. On the supplier side, it is hypothesized that vouchering will increase responsiveness to clients' needs and improve the effectiveness of services by increasing competition among vendors (Dunning and Unger, 1975:v).

From 1974 through 1976, a program to test the feasibility of vouchering manpower training was incorporated into the existing WIN program in Portland, Oregon. This experimental program was funded by the Employment and Training Administration of the U.S. Department of Labor, and was designed and evaluated by the Bureau of Social Science Research (BSSR).

The present study contains the results of the second phase of the voucher program which dealt with on-the-job training. (Phase One dealt with the evaluation of vouchered training offered by educational institutions.) The purpose of this second phase was to evaluate the feasibility of incorporating vouchers into an OJT program as an optional component that clients could choose. To ensure cooperation by potential

participants, clients were informed that they would not be penalized if they withdrew at a later point and could then return to the regular WIN OJT program.

The OJT vouchers issued to Portland WIN participants authorized them to contract with an employer for a period not to exceed one (1) year. Any employer, private or public, in the Oregon portion of the Portland SMSA could participate, provided federal eligibility criteria were met. Length of training and cost of training were to be negotiated between employer and client, with the restriction that cost of training could not exceed $3,800 without review and approval by the WIN staff. Trainees were to make as wide a search as possible for a suitable employer. They were given a small subsidy during the job search (up to $2.50 per day for lunch and travel expenses), along with the benefits provided to other classes of WIN enrollees (i.e., child care, clothing and tool allotment, auto repair) to help them secure a position.

During the period of the voucher test, the regular WIN OJT training option was also available, and a certain number of WIN clients were placed in OJT positions through the conventional program, in which job counselors and developers identify employers who agree to hire WIN trainees and take responsibility for negotiating training contracts. These clients are called throughout this study "regular OJT participants." All WIN participants who undertook OJT during the 1975-76 fiscal year were included in the study population, whether they were in the voucher program (VOJT) or the regular program (ROJT). The study population was interviewed approximately 18 months after the voucher program had been put into effect. The basic list of study subjects included 345 voucher clients and 139 regular clients; we were able to contact and obtain valid interviews from 142 and 54 respectively. Some information about the participants who could not be located for interview was obtained from the WIN files. Of the 142 voucher clients, only 47 had been able to commit their vouchers for training. The others had not located a suitable training position. For the voucher population as a whole, WIN records indicate that only 20% located a training position, although quite a few of those who did not commit the voucher accepted regular

jobs, many of which were located during the search for vouchered training positions.

The Clients and Their Program

There had been some initial fear that persons who were not suitable for vocational training or who had no definite job goal in mind would be attracted to the voucher program. This was not the case. Our findings indicate that, regardless of sex or legal status (voluntary or mandatory participant), voucher OJT clients who came to the program were more likely than regular clients to be seeking white collar positions. Voucher clients were also more likely to have been women, were better educated, were older, had larger families, and had a good idea of the jobs available to them in the labor market.

While it was women, especially mandatory women aspiring to white collar jobs, who appeared most likely to have chosen to participate in the voucher program, it was surprising to note that none of the males in the regular program anticipated a white collar career. It is conceivable that males with white collar careers in mind were particularly likely to self-select into the voucher program.

The data also show that those with no occupation in mind chose the regular program with its built-in guidance structure much more frequently than the voucher program. Vouchers are more likely to be selected by those with high expectations, not by the unqualified or the underqualified, but rather by those apparently best suited for training.

The question next arose as to whether, in fact, these clients had chosen the program themselves, or if the WIN staff had strongly influenced their decision. According to the program guidelines, when a client expressed an interest in vouchering the WIN staff was to explain the program to him/her in greater detail. In fact, 88% of the voucher clients said they chose the program themselves and half said the regular OJT had also been available to them. However, there was some indication from the regular respondents that the voucher program had not been fully explained to them at entry. Thus, some screening out by the agency may have taken place.

Overall, clients were aware that the programs did differ, even though many in both programs were unclear as to the true differences.

The Job Search

The voucher program not only places the client in a new role, that of active decisionmaker, but it also places the staff in a new role, that of facilitator rather than implementor. Both groups seem to have adapted fairly well to these new roles. It was evident that, although the regular clients did have a say in the decisionmaking process about their OJT choice, those in the voucher program were much more likely to have been autonomous, and to welcome this autonomy. On the other hand, it is interesting to note that only 32% of the voucher clients preferred to make the decision of which specific employers to contact on their own. While voucher clients preferred to make autonomous decisions about their own interests and abilities, they also wanted assistance from the WIN staff when it came to the job market.

Within the WIN staff, certain teams granted clients more autonomy than others. The special "voucher" team that was created to test utility of administrative centralization of function during the experiment granted the clients the most autonomy. The other teams varied in the degree of autonomy which their clients experienced, with client and staff personality characteristics rather than structural factors accounting for most of the variance.

A concern closely related to client autonomy was control of information. Vouchered and regular clients were equally likely to feel that WIN staff had information which was being withheld from them. Even so, WIN was the best source of information about employers for those clients who were able to commit their vouchers.

Voucher clients used a much wider variety of information sources then did regular clients in their search effort. This may benefit them in the longer run, since they become familiar with previously untried resources, for example, the newspapers.

The job search itself was a very active one for voucher clients, many of whom contacted ten or more employers per week. A fifth of the voucher clients made repeat calls on the same employers, even though they were seldom invited back. It should be noted that unemployment in the Portland area was 10.8% during the period of the voucher experiment; clients seeking to commit vouchers found themselves in a highly

competitive situation. On the whole, employers were receptive to the voucher program and many expressed at least some interest in the voucher. Clients unable to commit the voucher were more likely than their successful counterparts to say that they had encountered employers who were not interested in the voucher, did not want to deal with a government agency, or face the red tape involved in vouchers.

While 47 of the 142 voucher clients interviewed for this study were able to commit their vouchers, the overall program had a lower success rate; only 19% of the entire voucher population succeeded in finding a training slot. One cannot directly compare this finding with what happens in the regular OJT program, where job developers make numerous contacts--many of them no doubt unsuccessful--to develop OJT slots for their clients. But data collected from employers (and reported elsewhere) suggest that a fair number of them prefer to recruit trainees through the intermediary of WIN officials. Among voucher clients, volunteer women (who had the highest levels of education, the fewest problems and almost always had an occupation in mind when entering WIN) were most likely to have committed their vouchers. Those clients who had relied on WIN as the best source of information about employers were also the most likely to have been successful, as were those served by teams who had a high placement record for all their clients. Other factors that were positively related to commitment were a short time since last job, and having either a high school diploma or G.E.D. Lack of specific job orientation was negatively correlated with voucher commitment.

The Training Experience

Voucher clients were much more likely (43% versus 20%) than regular OJT clients to have secured a training position in the white collar field. These positions were also much more likely to have been what the clients had wanted (72% of them were exactly what the voucher clients had in mind, while this was true for only 36% of the regulars). While the shift away from blue-collar work stood out among voucher clients, it was made in the context of conventional sex roles.

Although men generally reported higher hourly and monthly income than women, mandatory women were paid nearly as much per hour as

males in their programs. Men did tend more often to work full time or longer hours per week, while females were much more likely to work only parttime. Voucher clients received more pay than regular program counterparts regardless of demographic characteristics.

The costs of training were to be roughly one-half the product of the wage rate and the length of training. Voucher committers, on the average, worked 7.3 weeks longer in their training than did regulars. Combined with the higher average wages received, this did result in an overall higher cost of training for voucher OJT clients (median costs were $1,929 for vouchered training and $1,534 for regular training). Only vouchered women training for blue collar positions incurred an average cost below that of their regular counterparts.

While voucher clients generally were paid higher wages than regulars, they were more likely not to be satisfied with this aspect of the training position. They were, however, more satisfied with the training experience.

Overall, 43% of the voucher committers and 56% of the regulars completed their OJT. Among the voucher committers voluntary women were especially dropout prone.

Apparently, volunteer females, at least among the voucher clients, were trying the OJT program as an option they wanted to consider, but felt free to drop out and return to their homes or pursued another course of action. Dissatisfaction with the training was seldom given as a reason for dropping out; rather, voucher clients appear to have defined their relationship to the program differently from the regular clients. They acted in ways that demonstrated a feeling of greater freedom of action, and were more likely to feel that their decisions were, in fact, reversible and not constrained by external influences.

This attitude may explain the finding that voucher clients were much more likely to drop out of training if they were in a large firm than if they were in a small firm, while the obverse held for regulars. Perhaps, within the perceived context of greater freedom of action, voucher committers were less amenable to the more rigorous, bureaucratic constraints likely to exist in larger firms and therefore, more likely to resolve the conflict by dropping out. However, dropping out

is not necessarily a bad thing, since half of the vouchered and regular dropouts who quit did so because they found better jobs. The voucher program may have provided the impetus for acquainting or re-acquainting voluntary WIN participants with the job market. If the voucher led to employment (rather than OJT) this was certainly not a negative outcome.

On balance, and in terms of OJT completion, mandatory women and WIN participants with small families appear to have benefitted most from the shift to vouchering, while men seem to have done better under the regular program.

Posttraining Activities

Since the goal of WIN training is to move clients into the labor force and off welfare, it is satisfying to note that almost all of the voucher committers (90%) who completed training were working during the first month following training completion. Similar, though smaller magnitude, results obtained among the regulars (73%). This relationship is largely explained by the fact that 90% of the vouchered completers and 72% of the regulars stayed on with their OJT employers. Those who stayed on constituted large proportions of the respondents (62% of the voucher committers and 79% of the regulars) who were working during the first month after training. Of those who did not complete their training, only 41% of vouchered and 25% of the regulars were working the first month after leaving training.

Overall, 85% of all voucher committers, 81% of the regulars and 77% of the voucher non-committers worked at some time after training or leaving the program by the time of the final interview (approximately 18 months after the voucher program was launched). It is interesting to note that 44% of the non-committers found non-OJT work within two months of receiving their vouchers and three-quarters of these jobs were found during the search for OJT slots.

The length of the job search after leaving WIN or finishing training was 1.6 months for voucher completers and 1.3 months for regular completers, but 1.7 months for non-committers. Of course, these figures include the large proportions of completers who stayed on with their OJT employers.

The jobs the completers found were similar to those they had held in OJT, for two-thirds of both voucher and regular clients. Pay rates were also similar for a majority of each group. Volunteer females again stand out among the non-committers. When they did obtain work it was at substantially higher pay than any other group of females. This may have been due to the fact that for these women to stay in the job market the benefits to be derived from working had to be sufficiently strong to offset the financial assistance and other support services to which their status entitles them.

Welfare dependence appears to have been influenced most strongly by the time lag between end of training and the outset of employment. Principally, being out of the labor force during the first posttraining month tended to depress the likelihood of being independent of welfare, probably because those not getting jobs immediately remained in the WIN program.

Labor force behavior over the long run also appears to have had an influence on long run welfare independence among voucher committers and regulars (but not non-committers). Those who had shifted in and out of the labor market or had been consistent non-participants prior to the OJT program were much less likely to be welfare independent during the posttraining period.

There appears to have been a capture effect similar to that observed in other studies. Those who were in a job the first month after training were most likely to continue to be working and welfare independent in all groups.

Conclusions

Although the voucher experiment was flawed as a result of departures from the design due to administrative events, and despite the high attrition rate in the study population, we can draw a few conclusions, based on the data which were obtained.

The crucial finding of the study is that only about one-fifth of the WIN participants (one-third among the survey respondents) who received vouchers were able to locate an OJT position and arrange for training. Since the objective of the study was to test the feasibility of vouchering manpower training, intuitively, a one-fifth success rate

does not seem particularly impressive. But we really have no yardstick against which to judge this outcome. Thus, we do not know what proportion of WIN clients who would like to secure OJT positions are so placed through the efforts of WIN staff. Typically job developers locate a given number of "slots" (based on the budget available to the office for this type of training) and then proceed to select candidates from among the WIN clients who are on board. Thus one might conjecture that under an open plan, where WIN counselors would seek "slots" for all clients desirous of such positions, they might also not succeed in placing more than a certain percentage of OJT applicants. Furthermore, under the voucher plan, the match between client aspirations and OJT placements may have been a closer one, since the vouchered training positions were often in white collar occupations and for higher pay.

While we were able to identify a number of demographic and/or programmatic factors that contributed substantially to particular outcomes, such factors did not fall into meaningful patterns.

On balance, we believe it likely that predispositions, aspirations and values played some part in determining which people would be successful. What seems reasonably clear, however, is that unlike institutional training, which worked well for practically all classes of clients, vouchered OJT succeeded more selectively. For many clients and many employers, a voucher system is less attractive and less manageable than the traditional system in which agency personnel are instrumental in paving the way for the client's job search and act as screening agents for the employer. Vouchers have the advantage of enlarging the opportunity structure for clients--and in practice will reward the successful training-seeker with a more desirable and better paying job than he/she was likely to find through WIN personnel referrals. But they will also fail to provide jobs for some individuals who might have been placed with the help of WIN specialists, and may discourage the participation of employers who prefer to recruit pre-screened personnel.

One recommendation which follows from this analysis is to offer WIN vouchers as a possible program option, but not at the exclusion of others, such as staff-developed OJT. Alternatively, it may be possible to combine the best features of both programs; for example, encourage or require an initial search for OJT positions by clients, to be followed

by active staff intervention where appropriate or requested by employers. Clients can and do use information about jobs and employers effectively, and will become active decisionmakers and job-seekers when an appropriate support system is provided. The Portland experience suggests that there are real advantages to be gained by encouraging active self-initiated search behavior on the part of WIN clients, since they seem to locate not only OJT positions but actual jobs as well when they receive even a modest financial subsidy for the job search and have access to a good information system when the search is begun.

Most important, however, is the evidence furnished by this study about the benefits which accrue to WIN clients from participation in OJT, which earlier studies have also identified. But it appears from the data at hand that whether or not vouchered OJT was a good tool for moving welfare recipients towards economic self-help, the vouchering of OJT created new relationships between WIN and its OJT clients in ways that are only partially tapped by this study.

Finally, it is clear that OJT was advantageous. In general, people who obtained OJT, whether in the vouchered or regular program, did better over the long run than those who received no such training. Taken in the aggregate and in terms of the major outcomes, differences between vouchered and regular trainees were small and not consistently to the advantage of either group, whereas differences between those who did and those who did not participate in OJT were substantial.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

This is a report on a survey of WIN participants in Portland, Oregon, who undertook on-the-job training (OJT) in an exploratory program to test the feasibility of introducing vouchers for obtaining occupational skill training. The report covers the entire period from entry into the WIN program through posttraining activities of the survey respondents, and includes data for voucher participants as well as a group of WIN clients who obtained on-the-job training in the the conventional, non-vouchered WIN program.

The test of vouchered OJT constituted the second major phase of the vouchering project in Portland. The vouchering of institutional vocational training was tested in earlier phases. A list of the other publications which resulted from this research are included in the bibliography of this report.

The voucher experiment was a research and demonstration project, funded by the Employment and Training Administration of the U.S. Department of Labor, and was designed and evaluated by the Bureau of Social Science Research (BSSR). The time frame for the program to test the feasibility of vouchered OJT was from 1974 through 1976.

Design of the Voucher System

In order to facilitate the reader's understanding of the study, the design of the vouchering system is presented here briefly.

a. Eligibility.--During the study period, all WIN participants were eligible to receive OJT vouchers if they so desired.

b. Occupational Restrictions.--Restrictions which applied to 'regular' OJT (ROJT), were applicable to vouchers: they could not be used where a commission was the primary source of income; for training as sewing machine operator (SIC 2300) or bartenders; for those occupations which have an intermittent seasonal employment pattern; for professions which require licenses; or for those occupations which do not

require specific training as a prerequisite to employment or where fewer than four weeks training is required.

c. Minimum Starting Wage.--Not less than $2.40 per hour.

d. Employer Eligibility.--Vouchers could be committed to any public or private employer in the Oregon portion of the Portland SMSA with the following exceptions: employers where more than one-fourth of the work force are OJT employees; employers listed in the Department of Labor's "Joint Consolidated List of Debarred, Ineligible, and Suspended Contractors;" employers who were currently struck or had locked out their employees; or employers who had defaulted on a previous vouchered OJT contract.

e. Length of Training.--Maximum one year. The length of the vouchered contract was determined jointly by the employer and the client.

f. Payments, Subsidies and Allowances.--The maximum reimbursement to employers for the cost of training was based on the same formula as ROJT: 1/2 the product of the wage rate and the total number of hours of training in the contract. Where necessary tools and equipment up to a value of $300, clothing up to a value of $35 and auto repair up to $50 were provided by WIN. During the search for training opportunities, transportation and lunch expenses up to $2.50 per day were paid.

g. Steps in the VOJT Process.--Clients who expressed an initial interest in the voucher program were provided detailed information on OJT by a manpower specialist. A job-search and personal assistance system was available to voucher clients, including staff assistance for exploration of vocational interest and access to a specialized information resources. Once the voucher had been issued the client had six weeks to choose and complete negotiations with an employer.

Wage and length of training were negotiated between the client and the employer and the WIN job developer's function was restricted to writing up the contract and reviewing it to insure that it met program guidelines. The voucher system allowed the client to change his/her occupation or employer, or both, so long as the training would be completed within the time remaining in the overall one-year time limit.

h. Administrative Structure and External Events Affecting the Study.--Both the administrative structure and external events have to some extent interfered with full adherence to the voucher test design.

There was at times more staff intervention on behalf of vouchered clients than had been specified in the research plan. Staff shortages, and periodic interruptions in the availability of "normal" WIN services (child care, ROJT) because of budgetary constraints resulted in contamination of the experimental design. Details of these issues have been discussed at some length in an earlier report (Richardson and Sharp, 1975:7-13).

The following is a brief description of the location of the study, the source of the data and the instruments used. The experimental study population consisted of all WIN clients who sought vouchered training within the Oregon portion of the Portland Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area, i.e., in the geographic area served by the Portland WIN office at the time of the project. The participants of the Regular on-the-job WIN training program constituted the comparison group for the Voucher clients.

In several respects, both the Voucher and Regular clients were treated similarly. All applicants for or recipients of Welfare support, unless in one of the exempt categories, were referred to WIN for registration and received at that time an initial assessment for career development. The existence of vouchering was mentioned briefly to all WIN enrollees prior to their assignment to one of ten teams, each of which consisted of a counselor and a job developer from the Oregon Employment Division and a local representative of the Oregon Child Service Division (referred to as SAU - Separate Administrative Unit in Oregon). These teams undertook the appraisal of the enrollees, and explained the voucher and regular programs for both institutional and on-the-job training. The strategy was to afford the participants an opportunity to select either institutional or on-the-job training and then to determine whether they wanted to use the voucher to get OJT on their own instead of being placed by the WIN job developers in an OJT "slot" which the job developer would locate. Participants were allowed several days to think over the alternatives.

Once the clients decided to go the voucher route, special voucher-oriented staff assistance and counselling were made available to the client on request. The assistance, for lack of a better word, might be termed "non-directive," i.e., it was not to be intended to directly influence the choices and decisions of the participants with

respect to their career/occupation or the employer through whom they got training. WIN assistance for voucher clients was to be restricted to providing them with information about the program and the personal support that clients felt they needed. Voucher participants were directed to the University of Oregon's Career Information System and given a copy of the booklet on job descriptions. In addition, the clients could use the information on occupations and labor market conditions researched by the WIN counselors and job developers. Before vouchering, the WIN counselors had been oriented toward directing their clients toward realistic career choices based on the counselors' assessments of the job seekers' potential, aptitudes and experiences. Now, the decision-making process was to be left in the hands of the clients and all the counsellors were supposed to provide was assistance with the use of self-assessment techniques and "non-directive" counselling.

Payments, subsidies and allowances to the regular and voucher enrollees were highly comparable, except for the fact that the latter group were eligible for additional job search money ($2.50 per day) during the search period. Further, in order to be able to attract participants to the voucher program an assurance was given to all clients that failure to find a job would not disqualify them from continued participation in WIN.

The Study Participants

The study population consisted of 345 persons to whom a voucher for OJT had been issued during the life of the experiment and of 139 persons who started a non-vouchered OJT program (ROJT) during the same period. WIN records were available for these two groups of participants and the findings discussed in this report are in part based on these records. In addition, interviews were conducted with those participants who could be located following the termination of the experiment. For most of the voucher recipients, interviews were scheduled 10 to 18 months after they first received a voucher; for the regular trainees (ROJT) interviews were attempted between 12 and 18 months following OJT completion. The relatively long time lapse between training start and follow-up interview was necessary since the main purpose of the interview was to collect data about post-training labor force experience; however, it resulted in heavy respondent attrition. Despite our attempts to exhaust

all possibilities of tracing hard to locate clients (including making as many as a dozen attempts through personal visits, and trying to locate persons through welfare records and through registered addresses on drivers licenses), we managed to locate only 142 voucher and 54 regular clients for inclusion in the evaluation study. The main reason for our inability to interview a larger proportion of the original population were name changes (most of the WIN clients are young women of marriageable age), out-of-area moves, and refusals (especially high for voucher recipients). As shown in Appendix Table E-1, demographic differences between respondents and non-respondents are slight, but there is no doubt that the high attrition rate for the study population makes it hazardous to generalize some of the findings which are primarily based on interview data.[1]

Of the 142 voucher respondents located for interview, only 47 (33%) managed to commit their vouchers for OJT. This low commitment rate of the voucher into a contract may be attributed, in part, to the tight job market at the time as well as the usual administrative difficulties that accompany the embryonic phase of a new program. However, the experiences of the unsuccessful voucher holders provide a rich source of information for the evaluation of program feasibility.

The Instruments

The data base consisted of (1) data extracted from the WIN records (viz., Form 511, and the OJT Contract) and (2) interview data. The WIN records provided information on the participant's age, sex, education, marital status, number of dependents, participation status (voluntary or mandatory), and the voucher team to which the client was assigned. The OJT Contract provided data about training costs, hourly wage rate, length of training, and occupation for which training was provided as well as the identity of the employer.

The questionnaire sought reasons for choice of plan, choice of occupation, source of information that helped occupational decisions, the client's knowledge of and use of the services available from WIN, the client's evaluation of such services, and the client's perceptions

[1] A more detailed discussion of response and nonresponse is presented in Appendix E.

of the adequacy and efficacy of the provisions made by WIN. With respect to job search experience, clients were asked about the number of employers seen, and their general experiences and problems encountered in their autonomous job search. The clients were also asked about their degree of comfort with autonomy in making occupational decisions, and their confidence in conducting the job search. Data on satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the program and clients' insights into possible shortcomings of the program were also sought.

Data Analysis and Major Hypotheses

The study utilizes essentially two methods of analysis. The first is bivariate crosstabulation to highlight percentage differences between the two comparison groups on various items. The second is a multivariate technique (multiple classification analysis) through which the relationships between independent and dependent variables were evaluated. (For a fuller description of the regression technique employed in the present study, see Appendix D).[2]

A number of potential benefits of a voucher system--social, economic and psychological--have been postulated by its proponents. These include the availability of a wider range of occupational choices for clients under such a system, gains in self-esteem and social skills through the autonomous job search process, the opportunity for voucher clients to tap into new employer networks not previously involved in government-sponsored OJT, and lower administrative costs. Although the study sought to develop information on all of these topics, the goals of the present study were of necessity more modest. Feasibility of

[2] In many cases, the regression estimates discussed in this report are based on numbers of cases which are marginal in terms of technical constraints imposed on Multiple Classification Analyses (dummy variable regression analyses). When we have interpreted and commented on these data in our discussion, the differences have been noticeably large or there have been striking differences in patterns. In such instances, even though we do not consider the actual values shown in the tables to be highly reliable, we believe that the differences are sufficiently striking to suggest that influences of some empirically significant strength do in fact exist. While we have shown the data, with obviously unreliable values removed, for those readers interested in examining them, we must caution users of this report against interpreting these data as giving indications of the precise strengths of effects or influences.

vouchering, rather than measurement of its benefits, was the main focus of the analysis, although some data and speculation on benefits or drawbacks are presented where the data base warrants them.

The five general assumptions underlying the experimental voucher program, which the study attempted to test are:

(1) WIN clients will find the OJT voucher program and its requirements attractive, will make satisfactory decisions on occupations in which to be trained, and will be able to secure employer agreement to conduct the training;

(2) Employers will accept the voucher clients as employees without prior arrangements by the agency;

(3) WIN staff members will find it possible and comfortable to reallocate roles among themselves, clients and employers, and to assume the position of facilitator (rather than mediator) of clients' decisionmaking and of the client-employer relationship;

(4) Vouchered trainees will be able to complete training at least as often as regular trainees; and,

(5) Vouchered trainees will be able to compete in the post-training labor market at least as well as regular clients in terms of ability to obtain non-subsidized employment and being independent of welfare.

In the remainder of this report, Chapter II describes the participants of the study. Chapter III deals with the job search process and actual commitment of the voucher or placement for those in the regular program. Chapter IV deals with what the clients who were able to obtain training experienced in that training, while Chapter V considers the activities of all respondents in either posttraining or post dropout periods shortly after leaving the WIN program. Chapter VI gives a brief discussion of the clients' attitudes toward the voucher program and WIN. Finally, Chapter VII summarizes the principal findings of the study and presents some speculations about reasons for the outcome of the experiment.

CHAPTER II

WIN Participants' Characteristics: Getting into the OJT Stream

One of the concerns in the vouchering experiment was that it might attract persons who were "unsuited" for vocational training because they had no well defined occupational goals. However, findings from Phase I of the Portland Voucher Experiment (the Institutional Training Phase) tended to contradict this argument:

> In this situation, there was no influx into institutional training of underqualified clients as some had feared might happen... (The) characteristics of the voucher recipients were strikingly similar to those of the comparison group of regular institutional trainees. To be sure, there was a noticeable increase in the proportion entering vouchered institutional training of a group who might otherwise have been steered into other components of WIN...But even this increase was not startling, and we believe it represents the introduction of justifiable opportunities for disadvantaged persons to overcome predetermined definitions of appropriate solutions to their disadvantages. (Dunning, 1976)

In any vouchering scheme the client becomes the active agent in the search for services from competing vendors. However, obtaining an OJT position is not quite the same as "purchasing" a service which the vendor is seeking to "sell," as is the case in institutional vocational training. Although the employer renders a service in providing skill training and benefits by receiving a cost-of-training subsidy amounting to roughly one-half of the wages paid to the OJT employee, providing the training service usually is incidental to the main purposes of the employer's business. The employer may be motivated by a sense of public service, by a desire to obtain low-cost labor, or by a desire to develop a source of skilled labor for the future. Realistically, however, the employer is not "competing" with others to supply OJT services. Further, the availability of OJT services is likely to be sensitive to local labor market conditions. While the model underlying the voucher system (vendors competing for vouchers) held true in the case of institutional training, in the OJT situation often clients continue to compete for jobs despite the presumed lure of the voucher.

The regular WIN program had the built-in structure to sort and channel persons to the "right" OJT occupations. Those who had been unsuccessful in past job search efforts could place themselves in the hands of experienced job developers and not be forced to face the possibility of yet another failure in the job market.

Since the voucher experiment would be thoroughly explained to any client who expressed an interest in it, it was hypothesized that those most secure because of their background (e.g., with 12 or more years of education, unemployed for a short time only, with a definite occupational goal, and who had held "good" jobs in the past) would be those most likely to enter the voucher OJT program. Conversely, those least secure would not choose to enter the voucher program, but would opt for the greater apparent security offered by the regular WIN program. Therefore, we hypothesized that there would be a process of self-selection into the voucher program such that participants would have measurably different characteristics from those who chose the traditional WIN approach.

Thus, it was expedient at the very start of this investigation to examine the clients who chose the voucher OJT program and to see if and how they differed from those who entered the regular OJT program.

Voucher and Regular Respondents

Table 1 shows several significant differences between the two populations. Those who entered the voucher as opposed to the regular OJT program tended to be better educated, older, and to have larger families. The first two findings tend to support our hypothesis, since those clients who were both better educated and older would be expected to be more self-assured due to their past experiences. While voucher clients were significantly more likely to have large families, they also were more likely to be female.

Perhaps clients with larger families were more highly motivated and thus more willing to try the voucher system. The larger number of females could also be attributed to the fact that if these individuals were not successful they would not be penalized and could revert to regular status in WIN. In this sense, the voucher program could offer more security to all who chose to participate in it. If clients failed to obtain

TABLE 1

CHARACTERISTICS OF WIN ON THE JOB TRAINING CLIENTS, BY PROGRAM TYPE[a]
(In Percentages)

	Voucher		Regular
SEX			
Percent female	51	(NS)[b]	41
SEX/LEGAL STATUS			
Volunteer female	16		17
Mandatory female	35		24
Male	49		59
Total % (N)	100 (142)		100 (54)
EDUCATION			
Less than 12 years	25		41
12 years or GED	51		48
Over 12 years	25		11
Total % (N)	101 (142)		100 (54)
AGE			
Less than 20 years	3		11
20 - 29 years	50		61
30 - 39 years	32		19
40 years of age and older	16		9
Total % (N)	101 (142)		100 (54)
NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS			
1 dependent	10		21
2 or 3 dependents	59		68
4 or more dependents	31		11
Total % (N)	100 (139)		100 (53)
RACE			
White	85		89
Non-White	15		12
Total % (N)	100 (142)		101 (52)

[a]In this and all subsequent tables, "no answers" to specific items have been excluded.

[b]Total percent may not be 100 due to rounding. Maximum NA did not exceed 3 cases.

OJT other WIN options continued to be available; furthermore, they could more readily place the blame on others than if they were placed where their combination of skills and training "fit" best according to a manpower specialist.

Race was not a significant variable due to the small percentage of non-white participants. It should be noted, however, that minorities in the voucher program did as well or better than their white counterparts throughout the experiment.

Next, we evaluated two indicators of the work history of voucher clients and comparison group clients: months on the job in the last two years and number of months since last job prior to WIN. As can be seen in Table 2, neither measure turned up any noticeably large differences between the two groups. If anything, the history of the regulars tended to be slightly better as they were somewhat more likely to have worked more than 18 months in the two years before entering WIN, and less likely to have been out of work for more than 12 months prior to entering WIN.

The differences that exist may be due in part to the fact that the voucher group had a higher proportion of females not likely to have worked because of the presence of children. Women in both groups had in fact worked less than men in both groups during the two years preceding the experiment. The median number of months worked was 7.2 for women in the vouchered OJT program, compared with 11.7 months for vouchered men; in the regular program, the respective figures for women and men were 5.3 and 12.2 months.

Another variable which may have had an impact on choice of program was the nature of jobs held prior to WIN. Using last job held as the criterion, it is evident in Table 3 that voucher clients were more likely than regulars to have been in white collar jobs before they joined WIN. Within the blue collar group, regulars were significantly more likely than the voucher clients to have been holding relatively lower-level jobs (84% as compared to 61% for vouchers) as operatives or service employees.

One of the most salient differences between the voucher and regular clients is a factor which could perhaps explain the selection of one program over the other, namely, the knowledge that voucher clients

TABLE 2

PRIOR WORK HISTORY
(In Percentages)[a]

Months	Number of Months Worked in Last Two Years		Number of Months Since Last Job Prior to WIN	
	Voucher	Regular	Voucher	Regular
No job history	2	4	2	4
0 to 3 months	25	19	48	53
3 - 6 months	9	13	11	9
6 - 9 months	15	15	9	6
9 - 12 months	7	4	6	13
12 - 18 months	23	15	5	0
More than 18 months	19	30	19	15
Total %[a]	100	100	100	100
(N)	(128)	(47)	(128)	(47)
	(NS)		(NS)	

[a]Total may not equal 100 due to rounding.

TABLE 3

LAST JOB PRIOR TO ENTERING THE WIN PROGRAM
(In Percentages)[a,b]

	Voucher Clients	Regular Clients
1. Professional	3	2
2. Subprofessional/Technical	3	0
3. Managerial/Administrative/Proprietary	8	4
4. High Clerical	4	0
5. Low Clerical	12	6
6. Foremen & Craftsmen	9	4
7. Operatives	22	42
8. Service	39	42
Total % (N)	100 (138)	100 (50)
White Collar Workers	30	12
Blue Collar Workers	70	88
Total %	100	100

[a]Total may not be 100 percent due to rounding.

[b]Details of the Occupational Classification scheme may be found in Appendix C. This scheme applies to all Tables in which occupation is used as a variable.

had about the kinds of jobs they could get. At the time they were thinking of OJT, over half of the voucher clients felt that they knew quite a bit about the kinds of jobs they could get, as against fewer than a third of the regulars.

Finally, drawing on the findings of Hokenson, et. al. (1976:38-39), it was felt that having a definite occupation in mind would also be a determinant of self-selection into the program. According to Hokenson, et. al., having a specific job in mind forces the client to become more goal-oriented, and assures awareness that the ultimate goal is obtaining a job. Therefore, it would be plausible to argue that persons with a well-defined idea of what they wanted to do would be more eager to go out and look for training than those with no idea of what they really wanted to do. Dunning noted a slight edge of the voucher clients over the regulars in coming to the program with a specific job in mind in his analysis of institutional vouchered training, and this strengthened our belief that the same would hold for OJT clients.

The expectation was born out by the finding shown in Table 4 that the percentage of those without an occupation in mind at the time they came to WIN was significantly lower (by 15 percentage points) for voucher clients than regulars. Also, voucher clients were significantly more likely (by 26 percent) to have had a white collar occupation in mind.

TABLE 4

OCCUPATION IN MIND ON FIRST ENTERING WIN BY PROGRAM
(In Percentages)

	Voucher	Regular
White collar occupations	37	11
Blue collar occupations.	44	56
No occupation in mind.	18	33
Total %	100	100
(N)	(142)	(54)

Were these occupational goals realistic? As mentioned earlier, it has been feared that vouchering may lead to a rush of both unqualified and underqualified persons with unrealistic job goals in mind. By means of regression estimates, which enable the control of the various independent demographic and work history variables, we were able to focus on the individual influences of each variable on the dependent variable--occupation in mind before talking to WIN staff. A note of caution should precede this and other discussions in the report; we must recognize the possibility that the WIN staff withheld information about the availability of program and job choice. In fact, later analysis seemed to indicate that some clients were kept out of VOJT because WIN staff did not inform them of its availability. However, we do not feel that this violation of the research design occurred with sufficient frequency to invalidate the data presented in this report.

In the analysis, we first looked at the variables that influenced the voucher clients' occupational goals, and then determined whether or not these pre-WIN choices differed substantially between voucher and regular clients. Our findings, shown in Table 5, indicate that regardless of sex or legal status, voucher clients were more likely to have come to the program with white collar occupational commitments. The only exception were the volunteer women who joined the voucher program, who were more likely to have had blue collar orientations than their regular counterparts. These females virtually always had an occupation in mind on joining the voucher program--perhaps an interest in a particular occupation prompted them to volunteer.[1] Interestingly, not one of the 32 males in the regular program had been anticipating a white collar job. It is conceivable that males with white collar careers in mind were particularly likely to self-select into the voucher program.

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[1]Although in this analysis, we are treating the white/blue collar dichotomy as a rough proxy measure for higher/lower occupational aspirations, it is obviously a very imperfect indicator, since high-level blue collar occupations afford better pay and higher status than low-level white collar occupations. A more detailed examination of the types of blue collar occupations selected by volunteer females showed that quite a few of them aimed at non-traditional female occupations (for example, truck driver) which are more lucrative and challenging than low-level female white collar occupations such as clerk-typist or keypuncher.

TABLE 5

REGRESSION ESTIMATE OF INFLUENCES ON OCCUPATION IN MIND (WHITE COLLAR OR BLUE COLLAR) BEFORE MEETING WIN, VOUCHER RECIPIENTS AND REGULARS (In Percentage Points of Deviation from the Grand Mean)

	(N)		In Percent					
			White Collar		Blue Collar		No Occupation	
	Voucher	Regular	Voucher	Regular	Voucher	Regular	Voucher	Regular
GRAND MEAN (Percent having occupation in mind)	(142)	(54)	37	11	44	56	18	33
Sex/Program Status								
Men	(69)	(32)	-18	-11	20	22	1	-11
Women, mandatory WIN participants	(50)	(13)	21	15	-25	-35	4	20
Women, volunteer WIN participants	(23)	(9)	15	*	- 4	*	- 9	*
Education								
Less than 12 years	(35)	(22)	-20	6	25	3	- 5	- 9
12 years	(72)	(26)	6	-	- 5	- 8	- 1	5
More than 12 years	(35)	(6)	8	*	-14	*	6	*
Age								
16 - 24 years	(39)	(23)	- 2	7	4	- 4	- 2	- 3
25 - 34 years	(69)	(20)	4	3	- 5	4	1	- 7
35 years or more	(41)	(11)	- 4	*	4	*	-	*
Number of Dependents								
1 dependent	(14)	(11)	- 5	-10	-13	19	18	- 9
2 dependents	(43)	(27)	- 4	- 5	3	- 2	1	6
3 dependents	(42)	(10)	- 5	13	5	- 6	-	- 7
4 or more dependents	(43)	(6)	10	*	- 3	*	- 7	-
Race								
Non-White	(22)	(6)	-10	*	12	*	- 2	10
White	(120)	(48)	2	1	- 1	-	-	- 1
Months Since Last Job Prior to WIN								
Less than 3 months	(61)	(25)	- 5	- 5	2	- 1	1	6
3 - 9 months	(42)	(16)	7	11	- 7	-	- 1	-11
More than 9 months	(39)	(13)	-	- 4	4	2	- 1	2
R^2			.26	.23	.33	.28	.06	.18

[a]The regression estimates shown in this table are based on numbers of cases which often are marginal in terms of the technical constraints imposed on Multiple Classification Analyses. While obviously unreliable values have been replaced by asterisks (*), the precise reliability of the values shown in this table is unknown. Readers are therefore, cautioned against interpreting them as precise measures of the relative strengths of effects.

In the voucher program those with 12 years of education were much more likely to have had a white collar occupational goal than were those with similar education among the regulars (32 percentage points or more). While none of the regulars with more than 12 years of education considered white collar jobs as their goal, 45% of the comparably educated voucher holders did. This last distinction must remain suggestive because of small numbers: there were only 6 participants at this level of education among the regular clients.

Age did not emerge as a meaningful variable. While those in the 25-34 year age group appeared to hold white collar orientations more often, in fact, at all ages voucher clients appear approximately equal in their desire to obtain a white collar job when the influence of other variables is controlled. Voucher participants, by age group, were uniformly more likely to hold white collar orientations than those who chose the regular training route.

Overall, then, it might be said that voucher clients were more likely than regular clients to be women, be better educated, be older, and and have larger families. Voucher clients who were female (especially mandatory) had 12 years of education and were between the ages of 25-34, were more likely to have had a white collar orientation than regulars with similar characteristics. Inasmuch as sex (female) and education tend to be normative characteristics for white collar orientations, vouchers tended to be chosen by persons who had entered the WIN program with such occupational commitments.

Evidence, as presented above, tends to support our supposition that there would be measurable differences in the two program clienteles and that a self-selection process would take place, but not one which would necessarily have negative effects. What was especially evident was that those with no occupation in mind chose the regular program and its built-in guidance much more often.

Client Entry into Voucher Program; Administrative Structure

While we know the characteristics of the participants in the voucher program, nothing has been said of the actual process of entry. It would be easy to assume that clients entered the program of their own volition. According to the program guidelines, when clients expressed

an interest in vouchering they were to be referred to a designated manpower specialist to learn about the program in more detail.

We were thus particularly interested in finding out to what extent the clients had actually chosen the program for themselves. Apparently, this was indeed the case. Almost all (88 percent) of the voucher clients stated that they (rather than someone on their behalf) made the decision to join the voucher program. Volunteers, those with more than 12 years of education, and those 35 or older were slightly more likely than others to have chosen the voucher program themselves.

Secondly, and equally important, was the question of open choice: was regular OJT actually available to these clients at the time of decision making? Slightly more than half of the clients who chose vouchering said they knew that regular OJT was an available alternative.

Third, were clients truly aware of the programmatic differences? More than one-half stated that the voucher and regular programs were different, but only one-quarter stated that in the voucher program a client is more independent. A number of voucher clients were under the misconception that only in the voucher program would WIN pay up to half the costs of training. This lack of understanding of program differences was also evident among regular clients where 41% of the clients did not know that the programs differed. To the extent that voucher holders selected this option for reasons not connected with the unique features of the program, the study findings may overstate interest in vouchers among WIN clients.

Finally, there was some concern that those who took vouchers would not understand the vouchering concept or how to use a voucher. The OJT clients in this study seemed to have had little difficulty in this respect, however. As shown in Table 6, respondents were asked to agree or disagree on five positive statements measuring understanding and scaled from strongly agree to strongly disagree. That the mean scores (all over 3.0) lay between agreeing and strongly agreeing, suggests that the clients were both well informed about the process and understood how to use the voucher.

Upon entry into the voucher program, each WIN registrant was originally assigned to one of 8 staff teams. The team had the responsibility to provide the special services that the client needed to go through the vouchering process and for writing up and monitoring VOJT contracts. The client remained with that team until the end of participation in the voucher project. However, a somewhat different administrative model was started in October 1975, about four months after the beginning of the field test.

TABLE 6

VOUCHER RESPONDENTS' UNDERSTANDING OF USE OF VOUCHERS:
MEAN SCORES OF SCALED ITEMS

Statement	Mean Score	(N)
When I first got the voucher, I understood how to use it. . .	3.2	(136)
I thought using the voucher would be very simple.	3.4	(136)
The staff was very helpful in explaining to me how to use the voucher	3.7	(135)
During my meetings with the staff, they told me that how I used the voucher was up to me	3.5	(135)
It was clear to me I could use the voucher to get any kind of OJT I wanted, provided the employer agreed.	3.5	(136)

1 2 3 4

Strongly Disagree Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

NA did not exceed 7 cases.

One of the important reasons for this change was to examine the relative feasibility of a more centralized and specialized structure as an alternative to the original, more decentralized, structure. This matter, along with the possibility of team influences, will be examined in subsequent analyses. Here we merely examine the distribution of voucher clients among the various teams.

As shown in Table 7, of the 142 respondents, the highest proportion (30%) was in the Voucher Team. The next highest concentration was in Team E (20%). The rest were dispersed rather thinly in seven different teams.

It seems reasonable to hypothesize that Manpower Specialists who have the most elaborately structured relations with actual and potential OJT employers would have the most to lose in the course of a temporary suspension of OJT practices, such as that represented by the voucher system test. If this is true, we would expect that those for whom the voucher program presented a "high" risk to long-run successful performance of their responsibilities to be the least likely to grant autonomy to clients, more likely to intercede in the OJT arrangements.

TABLE 7

VOUCHER CLIENTS AND TEAMS THROUGH WHICH THEY PARTICIPATED IN THE PROGRAM
(Percentages and Ns)

	%	(N)
Team A	5	(7)
Team B	9	(12)
Team C	6	(8)
Team D	6	(9)
Team E	20	(29)
Team F	11	(16)
Team G	4	(6)
Team H	9	(12)
Voucher Team	30	(43)
Total %	100	(142)

To classify Manpower Specialists according to the degree of risk represented by the voucher test, the number of OJT contracts negotiated by each Manpower Specialist in FY 1975 and in pre-voucher 1976 was tabulated. Those negotiating a greater-than-average number of contracts in those periods were classified as having the greater risks.

We then categorized Teams A, E, and F as "highly involved in traditional OJT structures," and Teams B, C, D, G, and H as "less highly involved" and will refer to them as "High" and "Low" risk teams. The Special Voucher Team was classified on its own. Based on these criteria, the concentrations of voucher clients were 36% in the "high risk" teams, 34% in the "low risk" teams, and 30% in the Special Voucher Team. Some of the data presented in this report--in particular those discussed in Chapter III--will be examined with reference to these categories.

CHAPTER III

Job Search and Voucher Commitment

Under the voucher system, each client was required to take a number of steps once he or she has decided to participate in the program:

--decide about the type or types of occupation for which to be trained;

--find an employer who is willing to enter into an OJT agreement to provide this training;

--negotiate a training contract with this employer.

The final outcome of these activities was "voucher commitment," i.e., the acceptance of the voucher by an employer as the basis for a negotiated OJT contract. According to the program design, each participant had to obtain this commitment within 6 weeks from the time a voucher was issued to him/her.

According to the field test design, at each of the steps in the job search and voucher commitment process, WIN staff was to provide information, counseling, and access to such resources and services to which WIN participants engaged in job search activities were entitled under the program. At the same time, the emphasis was on maximizing client autonomy: WIN staff was not to veto client decisions, even if they seemed unwise, or intercede on behalf of clients with employers. Only the final drawing up of the OJT contract, a largely technical matter, was to be handled by WIN staff.

In this chapter the clients' self-reported activities, their perceptions of decision-making autonomy and their perception of WIN services during the search period are described. It should be emphasized that all data presented in this chapter are based on interviews with WIN clients; no attempt was made to incorporate information received from WIN staff and material developed in the course of the study through observations. These materials were analyzed separately and have been presented in an earlier report (Greenhouse).

Autonomy in Decision-Making

Because proponents of vouchering saw client autonomy as one of the key features of the program, resulting in a number of beneficial consequences in terms of clients' self-esteem as well as ultimate employment and self-support outcomes, it was especially important to make a careful assessment of the extent to which the degree of autonomy experienced by voucher clients differed from that experienced by regular OJT participants. To hold the premise that regular WIN OJT clients had little or no autonomy would be false; in practice, we doubt that many WIN staff members make unilateral OJT decisions on behalf of clients without exploring the clients' preferences and interests. Certainly the regular OJT participants who were interviewed in Portland felt that they had had an active say in the decision-making process. For instance, although the structure of the regular program provides that a WIN Job Developer is to locate OJT "slots" and search among the clients to make the best match between available clients and an existing opening, over 25% of the regulars saw themselves as having made their own training arrangements with employers. But as shown by the data presented below, vouchering led to increased autonomy.

Table 8 presents the percentages of participants in each program who experienced autonomy at various points in the commitment process. Although the regular clients did have a say in the decision-making process, those in the voucher group were much more likely to be autonomous. Even where voucher clients did not make the decisions totally on their own, the WIN staff was highly unlikely to make a unilateral final decision (8% or less of the time).

Occupational choice is the factor which most clearly distinguishes the voucher and conventional WIN systems, and voucher clients most often reported that this decision was made autonomously. Thus, 63% of the voucher participants chose their training occupation independently, but only 48% chose the specific employers to contact and 46% made the decision to take OJT instead of placement without staff input.

It is also interesting to see whether voucher participants actually wanted as much autonomy as they experienced. Were there certain decisions they would have preferred to make with the help of the WIN staff? Were there other occupational decisions they felt qualified to make alone?

TABLE 8

LEVELS OF AUTONOMY PERCEIVED BY VOUCHERED AND REGULAR RESPONDENTS BY TYPE OF DECISION
(In Percentages)

Type of Decision & Who Made the Decision	Voucher Clients	Regular Clients
Training vs. Placement Decision		
Client decision.	46	39
Joint decision	46	44
WIN staff decision	8	17
Total %	100	100
(N)	(138)	(52)
Training Occupation Decision		
Client decision.	63	41
Joint decision	34	36
WIN staff decision	3	23
Total %	100	100
(N)	(138)	(53)
Decision about Employers to Contact		
Client decision.	48	24
Joint decision	44	38
WIN staff decision	8	38
Total %	100	100
(N)	(136)	(53)

We found that slightly larger proportions of voucher participants preferred making placement versus OJT training decisions and decisions about training occupation than actually experienced such autonomy. However, while 48% of the voucher participants decided independently which specific employers to contact, in retrospect only 32% preferred to make this decision alone (Figure 1). Clearly, the voucher clients felt need for some staff assistance in this area. While they preferred to make their own decisions based on judgments about their interests and abilities, they welcomed the assistance from the WIN staff when it came to the job market.

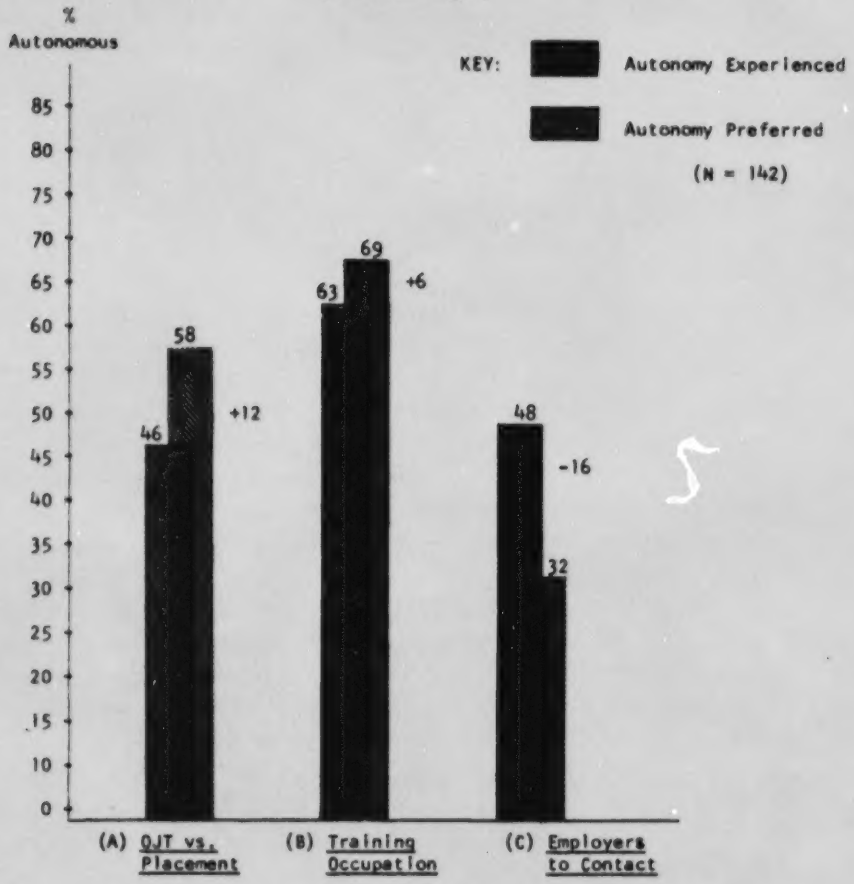
As already mentioned in Chapter I, WIN teams were expected to react differentially to the voucher experiment. Specifically, it was hypothesized that teams for whom vouchering posed a high risk (Teams A, E and F) would be less likely than other teams to grant autonomy to their clients. If this was a correct assumption, those clients assigned to the "high risk" teams would have been less likely to make any of the three decisions independently.

The hypothesis that "high risk" teams would be less likely to grant their clients autonomy than "low risk" teams was not supported. The special Voucher Team's clients were more likely to have been autonomous than either the "high" or "low" risk teams' clients, but no clear distinction emerged among the other teams. However, contrasting experienced and preferred autonomy, it was noted that clients in the "low risk" teams were less likely than those in the "high risk" teams to have preferred making autonomous decisions. Thus, the data pertaining to team effects are difficult to evaluate unless client predispositions are also taken into account; lack of appropriate data ruled out this type of analysis.

In a related vein, if the teams withheld information, it could be hypothesized that those teams with the most to lose would be the teams that would hold back information and thus be able to maintain better control of their clients. This was, in fact, borne out to some extent. Thirty-three percent of clients assigned to "high risk" staff agreed that WIN staff had information clients needed but did not give to them. Only 21% of the "low risk" group felt this way. On balance then, it would appear that the type of team to which a voucher holder was assigned may have had some effect on autonomy, but that these effects were minor and probably did not impair the experiment.

FIGURE 1

AUTONOMY EXPERIENCED VS. AUTONOMY PREFERRED BY VOUCHER CLIENTS, IN CHOOSING (A) TRAINING VS. PLACEMENT, (B) TRAINING OCCUPATION, (C) EMPLOYERS TO CONTACT (In Percentages)



It was also hypothesized that the autonomy experience of clients would differ, depending on client characteristics. For example, one might have assumed that better-educated clients experienced considerable autonomy in the regular program, since staff may have trusted them to make sound decisions, whereas the least-educated would experience the largest autonomy increases in the voucher situation. This was indeed the case.

Presented in Table 9 are the results of a regression of socio-demographic factors on the clients' decisions and experienced autonomy. On occupation and employer decisions, volunteer females appear to have experienced the greatest autonomy gains by participating in the voucher program. Their counterparts in the regular program experienced the least autonomy. Overall, based on sex/program status, voucher clients were more autonomous when other variables were held constant than regulars, with two exceptions: regular mandatory females (choice of employer) and males (choice of OJT vs. training). As hypothesized, those with more than 12 years of education were particularly autonomous in both groups, with the regulars even slightly more so than voucher holders. One other variable appears to have increased the likelihood of regular clients having more autonomy than voucher clients in all three decision areas. This was being out of work for more than nine months. Voucher clients, on the other hand, who both held blue collar orientations and were older, were significantly more likely to experience autonomy than similarly situated regulars.

In general, vouchering tended to <u>increase</u> the autonomy of volunteer females, those over 35, out of work for fewer than nine months prior to entering WIN, and those who held blue collar orientations. In a few specific decision-making areas, vouchered clients reported less autonomy, and these were usually situations where regular clients had experienced very high levels of autonomy; further research would be needed to explore the reasons for this phenomenon in the regular WIN program. On balance, the data show that vouchering resulted in significant autonomy gains especially for women, those with limited educational achievement, and those aiming at blue-collar occupations.

<u>Obtaining Information and Services</u>

The transfer of decision-making and training arrangements from WIN staff to the client was predicated on a comprehensive and accessible information system.

TABLE 9

REGRESSION ESTIMATES OF INFLUENCES ON DECISIONS OF CLIENTS WHO MADE THOSE DECISIONS AUTONOMOUSLY, VOUCHER RECIPIENTS AND REGULARS[a], [b]
(In Percentage Points of Deviation from the Grand Mean)

	(N)		In Percent					
			Client Autonomously Chose OJT Occupation		Client Autonomously Chose OJT Instead of Placement		Client Autonomously Chose Employer(s)	
	Voucher	Regular	Voucher	Regular	Voucher	Regular	Voucher	Regular
GRAND MEAN (Percent whose decisions were made autonomously)	(142)	(54)	64	43	47	41	50	26
Sex/Program Status								
Men	(69)	(32)	-	16	-18	5	6	- 3
Women, mandatory WIN participants	(50)	(13)	- 5	-11	18	- 7	-13	32
Women, volunteer WIN participants	(23)	(9)	12	*	16	*	10	*
Education								
Less than 12 years	(35)	(22)	-12	-17	- 1	- 6	6	- 7
12 years	(72)	(26)	- 1	4	- 3	- 6	- 8	- 5
More than 12 years	(35)	(6)	16	*	8	*	12	*
Age								
16 - 24 years	(39)	(23)	-10	- 7	- 4	-	-17	7
25 - 34 years	(62)	(20)	- 3	- 9	6	6	7	- 1
35 years or more	(41)	(11)	14	-	5	-10	5	-25
Number of Dependents								
0 or one dependent	(14)	(11)	9	11	- 7	- 4	4	-
2 dependents	(43)	(27)	4	2	- 2	- 1	3	2
3 dependents	(42)	(10)	- 9	-17	4	6	1	- 9
4 or more dependents	(43)	(6)	- 1	*	-	*	- 5	*
Race								
Non-White	(22)	(6)	6	*	-	*	17	*
White	(120)	(48)	1	- 6	-	2	- 3	3
Months Since Last Job Prior to WIN								
Less than 3 months	(61)	(25)	4	- 2	1	- 8	- 1	9
3 - 9 months	(42)	(16)	- 1	-22	- 3	- 4	-	-12
More than 9 months	(39)	(13)	- 5	30	- 5	20	- 8	33
Occupation in Mind								
White collar	(53)	(6)	1	*	- 5	*	- 2	*
Blue collar	(63)	(30)	4	-10	11	- 6	6	- 7
No occupation in mind	(26)	(18)	-13	- 2	-16	5	- 9	11
R^2			.12	.28	.13	.19	.34	.47

[a]Since the "autonomy" variable was dichotomous, deviation values for clients whose decisions were made nonautonomously are identical in magnitude to those shown in this table, but of opposite sign.

[b]The regression estimates shown in this table are based on numbers of cases which often are marginal in terms of the technical constraints imposed on Multiple Classification Analyses. While obviously unreliable values have been replaced by asterisks (*), the precise reliability of the values shown in this table is unknown. Readers are therefore, cautioned against interpreting them as precise measures of the relative strengths of effects.

Voucher clients needed information about available training opportunities, about techniques to approach employers, about labor markets, and about the characteristics of occupations. Of course, clients were free to use sources other than those provided by WIN. This section describes the information sources utilized and found most beneficial by clients, their satisfaction with the WIN information services, and also the extent to which the special allowances and subsidies made available to clients in their job search effort were utilized and found adequate.

We hypothesized that the source of information that would be used most often by clients would be WIN itself. The source of information on occupations reported by the largest portion of the clients in both programs was, in fact, the WIN staff. Nearly 90% of the voucher clients and over 75% of the regulars had used this source. In second place came the clients' own past experiences, again for both groups. But in other respects, the two groups differed. Regular clients tended to turn to friends and relatives for information, while voucher clients were more likely to use media sources and to consult persons in the line of work they were considering (Table 10).

In a study of WIN terminees, Schiller (1974:24) noted that while over half of those who were employed had used WIN information services frequently, only 17.8% of all respondents regarded WIN information as helpful. Thus, we were not surprised to find that although almost 90% used WIN as a source of information, only one-quarter of the voucher clients viewed this as their best source. However, over two-fifths of the regular clients felt WIN to be their best source of information on training occupation (Table 11).

Perhaps more crucial than information about occupations was information about employers since voucher clients were required by the program to locate employers willing to accept the voucher. They had to negotiate jobs for themselves, while, in the case of regular program participants, such jobs were generally found for them by WIN staff. Consequently, it was not surprising to note (Table 12) that voucher clients were more likely than regulars to have referred to a wider variety of sources of information about potential employers.

Clearly, then, one of the most important effects of the vouchering experiment was increased client exposure to a variety of information sources. More of the voucher than regular clients had gone to the Employment Service (ES) Job Bank than had consulted the Yellow Pages and ads in newspapers, and most important, had directly approached potential employers.

TABLE 10

PROPORTIONS OF VOUCHERED AND REGULAR RESPONDENTS MENTIONING USE OF EACH OF VARIOUS SOURCES OF INFORMATION ABOUT TRAINING OCCUPATION[a]
(In Percentages)

Sources of Information	Voucher	Regular
1. WIN staff.	88	76
2. Own experiences in the past.	82	72
3. People doing the kind of work client was considering.	68	44
4. Books, magazines, newspapers, TV radio	56	37
5. Employers.	50	41
6. Friends and relatives.	39	48
7. Other sources.	13	9
Special WIN Services		
University of Oregon's Career Information Service.	18	DNA
Job description book of the Career Information Service.	53	DNA
Self-assessment counseling from WIN.	56	DNA
Total (N)	(142)	(54)

[a]Multiple responses were permitted.

TABLE 11

RESPONDENTS' BEST SOURCE OF INFORMATION ABOUT TRAINING OCCUPATION
(In Percentages)[a]

Sources of Information	Voucher	Regular
Friends and relatives.	6	11
Employers.	9	9
Own experiences in the past.	27	26
People doing the kind for work client was considering.	9	8
WIN staff.	25	42
Books, magazines, newspapers, TV radio	5	2
Special Voucher Services		
University of Oregon's Career Information Service.	3	DNA
Job description book of the Career Information Service.	4	DNA
Self-assessment counseling from WIN.	5	DNA
Other sources.	8	2
Total %[a]	101	100
(N)	(140)	(53)

[a]Total percent may vary slightly from 100 due to rounding.

TABLE 12

CLIENTS SOURCES OF INFORMATION ABOUT EMPLOYERS
(In Percentages)

Sources of Information	Sources Mentioned[a]		Best Source	
	Voucher	Regular	Voucher	Regular
WIN Staff	65	80	30	59
Employers				
Past employers	23	20	2	2
Supervisors or potential boss.	45	38	9	11
Walking in cold on employers	63	-	12	-
Informal				
Friends and relatives.	24	20	8	4
People working at employer's firm	34	22	4	2
Media/Agencies/Job Bank				
Ads in newspaper	51	37	11	11
Yellow pages	38	9	4	0
Radio and TV	11	9	0	2
Private employment agencies.	12	13	-	-
Labor unions	13	7	-	-
Job bank	53	33	7	6
Contacts Influential Book	30	-	9	-
Other Sources	3	15	4	4
Total % (N)	(142)	(54)	100 (138)	100 (53)

[a]Multiple responses allowed.

Thus, vouchering exposed this group to possibly untried (for these clients, at least) information sources that would benefit them for long-run labor force participation.[1]

When respondents were asked to assess which of the information sources they had mentioned was their best source, WIN staff ranked first for both groups. This finding suggests that voucher clients found WIN staff more helpful for employer-related information than for occupational decision-making. It will be recalled that WIN was the second choice of voucher clients in obtaining information in choosing a training occupation. But, of course, WIN was especially important for regular clients; there was a much greater likelihood for a regular than a voucher client to have chosen WIN as their best source (by 29 percentage points).

Taken together, these data suggest that the support system developed in conjunction with the voucher experiment in Portland accomplished its goals remarkably well. Voucher clients explored a great many sources and took considerable initiative in informing themselves about occupations and employers, thereby acquiring information and job-seeking skills which would enhance their ability to deal with the labor market and become effective labor force participants. At the same time, the experience and resources of the WIN staff were effectively used by these clients to obtain information and advice as needed.

If the information provided by WIN staff and through WIN services was not always viewed as adequate, what types of inadequacies existed? This is important to know not only for any further attempt at vouchering, but also for the WIN program in general. WIN's information has been shown to be perceived as inadequate elsewhere (Pacific T & TA Corporation, 1974). The reasons for discontent shown by the present study varied between the two groups of OJT participants but not greatly (Table 13).

As seen in Table 13, the major deficiency seen by both regular and voucher OJT clients was direction to potential employers. (In the case of the voucher clients, this was, of course, precisely what WIN was not supposed to do, but obviously the clients would have liked to get this kind of help.)

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[1]As will be shown later in this report, for a number of voucher clients, these activities yielded actual jobs (rather than OJT placements). These clients, although they did not comment in the voucher, became gainfully employed.

TABLE 13

THINGS ABOUT WHICH VOUCHER CLIENTS NEEDED MORE INFORMATION AND ADVICE[a]
(In Percentages)

	Voucher	Regular
Management of voucher (responsibilities, explaination of how to use the voucher). . . .	20	-
About the VOJT program (alternatives to OJT, benefits, services, child care).	22	41
About the occupation (supply and demand factors, opportunities, work conditions) . . .	20	32
Direction to available jobs/training programs (available jobs, where to go).	50	41
Psychological support (needed more building up to have courage to face employers, needed help to handle my feelings).	7	5
Other (employers should be officially informed about vouchers; best way to approach employers; how to make VOJT more appealing). .	17	-
Total (N)	(59)[b]	(22)[b]

[a]Multiple responses permitted.

[b]Question was only asked of respondents who said they needed more information and advice than they received (42% of all voucher clients and 54% of all regular clients).

Many regulars also felt that they had not received adequate information about the VOJT program. This could point to the fact that regular clients may not have had the opportunity to make an informed decision before opting for the regular program, and were thus administratively kept out of the voucher program.

Provision of Services and Allowance

Voucher clients were encouraged to make as wide an exploration of training possibilities as they felt was helpful or necessary. In order to aid them financially toward this end during the OJT search period, each client was to receive a payment of $2.50 per day to help offset lunch and transportation expenses associated with the search. Child care services and medical care were also provided where needed. The job search payments and other special benefits began with the first job search day for voucher clients, while for regulars who did not receive the job search allowance, most of the WIN benefits were provided after the client had been placed in a job.

From Table 14, it can be seen that while the job search allowance was received by almost all clients, only a limited percentage of clients received the other services. Slightly over a third reported that they got medical or dental care; child care services and money for clothes were received by fewer than 30%. There is no reason to believe that services were withheld; rather, most of those who did not receive medical and child care benefits probably did not need them. Most of those clients who received special services/allowances felt that the amounts received were adequate. The exception was the job search allowance--almost a third of the respondents viewed it as inadequate.

The provision of these forms of financial support, as well as the opportunity to participate in several special training sessions (resumé writing, weekly rap sessions, and special coaching on how to approach an employer) appear to have made the voucher client as ready to approach the job search as could be expected from an administrative point of view.

However, an active search, alone, does not mean the clients would find an employer willing to give them OJT. Job availability and the attitudes of the employers would, of course, have a major role.

TABLE 14

PROPORTION OF VOUCHER CLIENTS WHO SAID THAT THEY RECEIVED THE SERVICE/ALLOWANCE
(In Percentages)

1. A $2.50 a day job search allowance for transportation and meals. . .	90
2. Child care support	26
3. Money for clothes to wear while job hunting.	28
4. Medical or dental care	37
5. Money for car repair	18
(N).	(142)
(NA)	(does not exceed 4)

Employer Contacts

It is evident from the data that the voucher clients made quite an intensive search for OJT. About a fourth saw, on the average, more than 10 potential employers each week, with a median of five employer contacts per week. And, despite the tight job market, the VOJT enrollees were able to get a fair number of interviews each week, a median of three. A fifth of the VOJT clients had five or more employer interviews per week.

In a tight job market situation, employers probably discourage job seekers from making repeat calls unless the particular employer is seriously interested. A fifth of the voucher clients did not make any repeat calls, while almost as high a proportion were real persisters and recontacted more than 10 employers. The median for employer recontacts was, however, only two.

Seeing an employer more than once was something of an accomplishment, since almost 60% of the voucher clients stated that they were usually told by employers that there were no job openings. Further, almost a third said it was their experience that employers never asked them to come back, though half did say that occasionally they met with employers who asked them back.

While employers were in a buyer's market situation due to the overall job market, they were, on the whole, rather interested in the voucher

concept. As can be seen in Table 15, fewer than a fourth of the clients found employers totally disinterested in the voucher. In fact, over 25% said that employers almost always expressed an interest in the voucher, and an additional 50% that at least on occasion employers stressed their interest.

Slightly over a third of the clients stated that, at least on occasion, they met with employers who told them that they did not want to have any dealings with a government agency. In fact, employer prejudice constituted a problem in arranging OJT for some clients.

The type of occupation sought for training was also an important variable. Briefly, it can be seen from Table 16 that about two-fifths of the voucher clients were trying to get OJT for white collar jobs, about half (46%) for blue collar work/service, while slightly more than an eighth (14%) had no particular occupational orientation and were probably willing to take anything.

Since WIN voucher clients' initial job goals were not unreasonable, it was logical to assume that the occupational choices firmed up after information-seeking and consulting with WIN would be even more acceptable. Regression estimates suggest that the jobs sought were not at all unreasonable, since it was the better educated and those who knew the types of work they could get who were looking for white collar jobs. As is generally the case, females were more likely than similarly qualified males to look for clerical (low white collar) positions. Unexpectedly, those who had studied beyond high school were more likely than less-educated clients not to have a specific occupation in mind. This may be explained by the fact that many of them were women who were probably entering/re-entering the job market and were not fully aware of the options available to them.

Problems in Arranging OJT

The OJT voucher program in Portland was launched during the 1975 recession. In fact, in June and July of that year the average unemployment rate for Portland was 10.8%, a rate 2.4 percentage points above the U.S. average (U.S. DOL, 1977). In other words, at the time of voucher clients sought work, Portland was hard hit by unemployment. As already shown, this tight job market presented a serious problem for voucher clients, since many employers reported having no openings when clients applied for an OJT position.

TABLE 15

VOUCHER CLIENTS' EXPERIENCES WITH EMPLOYERS
(In Percentages)

	Almost Always	Occasionally	Never	TOTAL[a]
a. Employer Prejudice				
Employer told client he didn't want to have any dealings with a government agency	9	26	66	101
b. Job Market				
Employer told client there were no openings at that time.	58	23	19	100
Employer told client to come back at a later date	22	50	28	100
c. Interest/Knowledge of Voucher				
Employer expressed lots of interest in the voucher	27	50	23	100
Employer had a lot of questions about the voucher that client could not answer	15	23	62	100
Employer seemed confused by the idea of vouchers	24	36	39	99
Total (N)				(137)

[a]Total percent may not be 100 due to rounding.

TABLE 16

PRIME OCCUPATION ACTIVELY SOUGHT BY VOUCHER CLIENTS
(In Percentages)

Professional/Technical/Administrative	
Professional	2
Sub-professional and technical	8
Managerial, administrative and proprietary	6
Subtotal	16
Clerical	
High clerical	10
Low clerical	13
Subtotal	23
Crafts and Operatives	
Foremen, craftsmen and kindred	10
Operatives and kindred	25
Subtotal	35
Service	11
Did not Actively Seek Work in a Particular Occupation	
Had occupation in mind but did not actively look for work in it	5
Did not have any occupation in mind even after talking to WIN	9
Subtotal	14
TOTAL % (N)	99 (142)
Summary	
White collar	39
Blue collar	46
No occupation in mind/actively sought	14
Total %[a] (N)	99 (142)

[a]Totals may not be 100 due to rounding.

But this was not the only problem faced by those who sought to commit the voucher. When asked specifically about problems encountered in the search process, the voucher clients brought out a number of difficulties which regular clients either had not encountered at all or encountered more rarely, because the job developer, rather than the client, handled many aspects of the OJT arrangements. Finding an employer who gave training in the chosen occupation, getting to the right person for an interview, and actually getting interviewed, are steps handled by the job developer for the regular OJT client; these were also the steps most problematic for voucher recipients (Table 17).

Using a more narrow definition of problems, i.e., "real" problems (those which seriously interferred with the effort to obtain an OJT position, it was found that regular clients averaged 1.6 "real" problems versus 3.2 "real" problems for voucher clients. In other words, voucher clients encountered twice as many serious problems (Table 18). In fact, almost a third of the regular clients said that they did not have any real problems in arranging for OJT, while the voucher clients were only half as likely to be as fortunate. Conversely, more than a fourth of the voucher enrollees reported five or more real problems as compared to fewer than 10% of the regulars.

Obviously, some voucher clients encountered more problems than others in their job search effort. It was seen that about 60% had three or more problems. Operationally defining those with two or less "real" problems as low problem clients and those with three or more "real" problems as high problem clients, we sought to determine the variables that discriminate between the two groups. Noticeably strong relationships were evident in several instances. Being a voluntary female, having more than 12 years of education, more than 3 dependents, being out of work for less than 3 months, viewing employers as the best source of information about placement, and not seeking any particular occupation, all significantly increased the likelihood of having experienced a "low" number of "real" problems.

Commitment of Voucher

Despite the efforts made by the voucher clients to get OJT, only 47 of the interviewed 142 (33%) voucher respondents had managed to commit their voucher for training at the time of cut-off, 6 weeks after the voucher was issued.

TABLE 17

PROPORTION OF RESPONDENTS CITING "REAL" OR "SOME" PROBLEM IN ARRANGING OJT BY PROGRAM
(In Percentages)

Type of Problem in Arranging OJT	Voucher Clients	Regular Clients
Training Related		
Getting a clear idea of what kind of work one wanted	43	35
Getting a clear idea of the kinds of jobs people can get OJT for in the Portland area	50	40
Being allowed enough time for training	37	19
Employment Related		
Being able to find places that gave training in the occupation one wanted	72	53
Getting to the right person for a job interview	52	DNA
Actually getting interviews	58	DNA
Competing with more experienced applicants	74	15
Finding that places were not hiring or only hiring their own laid off workers	70	44
Prejudice		
Employers don't like to hire WIN people	35	20
Personal		
Feeling shy about talking to employers	36	DNA
Health	18	17
Right clothes to wear	38	24
Transportation	36	22
Child-care arrangements	17	17

TABLE 18

NUMBER OF "REAL" PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED BY THE VOUCHER AND REGULAR CLIENTS IN ARRANGING FOR OJT
(In Percentages)

Number of Problems	Voucher	Regular
None	14	30
1 - 2 "real" problems	28	41
3 - 4 "real" problems	30	24
5 or more "real" problems	28	6
Total %	100	101
(N)	(142)	(54)
Mean number of real problems[a]	3.2	1.6

[a]Mean computed from raw data.

This represents a higher proportion of committers than existed in the entire population of voucher clients (19%), since noncommitting recipients were harder to locate and interview. In addition to the 47 respondents who committed their vouchers, 19 more found unsubsidized work, and it might be inferred that the job search experience did help these clients become gainfully employed.

Who were the most and least successful clients? One could hypothesize that the same factors that differentiate voucher clients from regular clients would be the characteristics that distinguish successful and unsuccessful voucher clients in terms of commitment. Specifically, those with 12 or more years of education, with less than 3 months since last employment prior to WIN, with definite occupational goals, and those who had previously held higher status jobs would be the most likely to obtain vouchered OJT. Since voluntary women were shown to have had the fewest problems and almost always came to the program with an occupation in mind as well as the highest levels of education, as a group they should have the best commitment rate.

This was in fact substantiated; the pertinent data are shown in Appendix Table 1. Volunteer women were significantly more likely (19 and 14 percentage points, over male and mandatory females respectively) to have committed their vouchers. However, the effects of education were not significant as a predictor, although having a high school diploma/G.E.D. was positively associated with commitment. Age also had no significant effects. However, as predicted, those who had been out of the work force for the shortest time were more likely to have succeeded than those with longer periods of unemployment prior to WIN, by as much as 27 percentage points. A significant negative relationship appears between commitment and having held no particular occupational orientation, and viewing WIN staff as not having explained the voucher or withholding information.

It appears that WIN itself had a greater impact on commitment than socio-demographic and work history variables. From our earlier hypothesis concerning "high" and "low" risk teams, a natural extension would be that clients from "high risk" teams would be more likely to commit their vouchers. since WIN staff was likely to have intervened more actively on their behalf. Results tend to indicate this was the case. Those assigned to "high risk" teams were more likely to commit their voucher than "low risk" clients by 19 percent, and more likely than those from the special Voucher Team by 22 percent.

It is also reasonable to hypothesize that those relying on WIN as the best source of information about employers should be most likely to succeed. In fact, the WIN staff was the best source of information for those who committed the voucher by 10 percentage points over other sources. Three best sources of information had significant negative impacts on voucher commitment: the Yellow Pages, the ES Job Bank, and people working at places where the client was looking for work. Reliance on any of these decreased the probability of committing the voucher by 13 percentage points from the mean likelihood of all sources. One final variable, receipt of subsidies and allowances, appeared to have a positive effect.

It should be pointed out that the interaction with potential employers bore a direct relationship to the likelihood of success. Table 19 presents findings that indicate when employment-related problems were not considered a problem by the clients, they were much more likely to be able to commit their vouchers.

TABLE 19

PROPORTION OF VOUCHER CLIENTS WHO COMMITTED THEIR VOUCHER (A) WHEN IT WAS A "REAL" OR "SOME PROBLEM AND (B) WHEN IT WAS NOT A PROBLEM AT ALL

Problems	When the Problem Was: (A) Real or Some %	(A) Real or Some (N)	(B) Not a Problem %	(B) Not a Problem (N)
Training-Related				
Getting a clear idea of what kind of work one wanted	27	(59)	35	(79)
Getting a clear idea of the kinds of jobs people can get OJT for in the Portland area	32	(69)	32	(68)
Being allowed enough time for training	26	(47)	37	(80)
Employment-Related				
Being able to find places that gave training in the occupation one wanted	23	(97)	57	(37)
Getting to the right person for a job interview	21	(71)	44	(66)
Actually getting interviews	25	(80)	42	(57)
Competing with more experienced applicants	23	(101)	57	(35)
Finding that places were not hiring or only hiring their own laid off workers	23	(96)	54	(41)
Prejudice				
Finding that employers don't like to hire WIN people	32	(47)	31	(89)
Personal				
Feeling shy about talking to employers	31	(49)	33	(88)
Health problems	33	(24)	32	(113)
Having the right clothes to wear	31	(52)	33	(85)
Transportation	24	(49)	36	(88)
Child-care arrangements	26	(23)	33	(114)
Other	29	(28)	33	(109)

From these data, one might conclude that locating an employer who was willing to grant an interview and who had open OJT positions was the only thing that mattered in the commitment process. In fact, the situation is more complex. A regression analysis was performed to determine if employer reactions to the clients' application and to the voucher idea also influenced the commitment process. The data are shown in Appendix Table 2. They are suggestive, rather than conclusive, but they indicate that while the availability of job openings played indeed an important role, employer interest in the voucher program also affected the commitment process. To a lesser extent, employers' feelings about dealing with a government agency also played a part: there was a tendency for clients to have less success when they encountered employers who expressed negative views on this subject. The 19 voucher clients who were hired for regular jobs while searching for OJT reported that their employers preferred to hire them outright rather than having to deal with the government, although they had to forego the training subsidy.

In short, it might be said that there was an indication from the clients' reports that the tight job market, negative attitudes of some employers, lack of interest in the voucher program by some employers, all contributed to noncommitment of the voucher. One other major problem from the clients' perspective was that six weeks was not a long enough time for the job search period. Given the already discussed job market, their complaint may have some merit. Of those who did not commit their vouchers or found unsubsidized employment, 57% felt this way. The remainder offered various other explanations for noncommitment (Table 20).

TABLE 20

MAIN REASON WHY VOUCHER CLIENTS DID NOT COMMIT THE OJT VOUCHER
(In Percentages)

Reasons Given	
Six weeks was not long enough a time in which to find OJT	57
Client got discouraged	17
Stopped looking because of illness/personal problems	6
Did not have enough schooling/experience for the OJT client wanted	6
Went back to school/vocational education	4
Decided to get a job instead	6
Other: Employer took voucher then changed his mind, couldn't find work, found OJT demeaning	3
Total %[a]	100
(N)	(69)

[a]Total may not be 100 due to rounding.

Note: NA = 7, DNA = 19 (client found unsubsidized work).

CHAPTER IV

The Training Experience

As shown earlier in this report, voucher as opposed to regular trainees were better educated, more likely to have held white collar jobs, and more likely to aspire to such occupations. Thus, it is not surprising to find in Table 21 that 43% of the successful voucher clients, but only 19% of the regular clients, were able to secure training in white collar positions.

How did these positions compare with past employment experience, and were they in occupations the clients had wanted? From Table 21, it can be seen that for both voucher clients and regulars there was the potential for some upward mobility, but not significantly so. It will be noted that no trainee was able to secure a professional level position, either on his own initiative or with placement. But voucher clients were noticeably more likely than regulars to have secured positions as operatives.

Among the voucher clients, 72% of these positions were exactly the ones clients had decided upon after talking with WIN staff, but this was true for only 36% of the regulars. To the extent, then, that the increased autonomy experienced in the voucher program can be translated into success in securing the exact position that an individual desires, the program was highly successful (Table 22).

While the shift from blue collar to white collar occupations stands out as a major concommitant of vouchered OJT in Portland, this shift quite clearly took place within the context of conventional assumptions about occupational sex roles. As illustrated in Table 23, men in both programs were predominately found in the foreman/craftsman/operatives category, although to a lesser extent among voucher males. The reduction in blue collar training was largely accounted for by entry into managerial/administrative occupations by the vouchered men.

TABLE 21

OJT OCCUPATION AND LAST JOB BEFORE WIN OF VOUCHER HOLDERS
OJT AND REGULAR CLIENTS
(In Percentages)

Occupational Categories	Voucher		Regular	
	OJT Job	Last Job	OJT Job	Last Job
Professional	-	4	-	2
Subprofessional/Technical. .	4	2	-	-
Managerial/Administrative Proprietary.	11	9	-	4
High Clerical.	19	9	4	-
Low Clerical	9	15	15	6
Foremen & Craftsmen.	13	15	17	4
Operatives	23	17	44	42
Services	21	28	20	42
Total %[a]	100	99	100	100
(N)	(46)	(47)	(50)	(54)
White Collar	43	39	19	12
Blue Collar.	57	61	81	88
Total %	100	100	100	100
(N)	(46)	(47)	(50)	(54)

[a]Total percent may not equal 100 due to rounding.

TABLE 22

OJT OCCUPATION AND OCCUPATION CLIENT HAD IN MIND AT START OF JOB SEARCH
(In Percentages)

	Voucher	Regular
Exactly the same	72	36
Not exactly the same but in same category	5	32
Not same category, and higher level[a]	5	15
Not same category, and lower level[a]. . .	18	17
Total % (N)	100 (43)[b]	100 (41)[b]

[a]Level determined by hierarchy as shown in Table 21.

[b]Four voucher clients (9%) and thirteen regulars (24%) had no specific occupational goal at start of job search and are excluded from this table.

TABLE 23

ON-THE-JOB TRAINING, BY SELECTED DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS, VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS
(In Percentages)[a]

	Voucher Committers						Regulars					
	Sub-Professional/ Technical, Managerial/ Administrative	Clerical	Foremen/ Craftsmen/ Operatives	Service	Total	(N)	Sub-Professional/ Technical, Managerial/ Administrative	Clerical	Foremen/ Craftsmen/ Operatives	Service	Total	(N)
Sex/Program Status												
Men	21	4	58	17	100	(24)	-	6	78	16	100	(32)
All women	9	52	13	26	100	(23)	-	36	36	27	99	(22)
Women, mandatory	7	64	14	14	99	(14)	-	23	62	15	100	(13)
Women, volunteer	11	33	11	44	99	(9)	-	56	-	44	100	(9)
Education												
Less than 12 years	8	8	58	25	99	(12)	-	23	64	14	101	(22)
12 years	12	29	33	25	99	(24)	-	15	62	23	100	(26)
More than 12 years	27	46	18	9	100	(11)						[b]
Age												
16 to 24 years	8	23	54	15	100	(13)	-	17	57	26	100	(23)
25 to 34 years	18	27	32	23	100	(22)	-	20	60	20	100	(20)
35 or more years	17	33	25	25	100	(12)	-	18	73	9	100	(11)
All	15	28	36	21	100	(47)	-	19	61	20	100	(54)

[a]Excludes "no answers."

[b]Less than 9 cases.

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For women, too, there was a shift away from blue collar occupations among voucher clients, with only 13% as compared to 36% of regular women seeking training in such areas. But, the move for these women was largely into clerical work which became the predominant field for vouchered women (52%), especially mandatory vouchered females (64%). Although not shown in Table 23, it should be noted that voucher committing women who chose clerical training predominately (75%) arranged that training at the higher clerical levels, while among regular women, only 20% received training at the higher level.

Education had little impact on the training choices of regular clients, but status of occupation tended to increase among voucher clients with more education. With respect to age, the only noteworthy finding was that the youngest voucher committers obtained blue collar positions over half the time, whereas older voucher clients sought this type of training much less often.

Of course, gaining entrance to a firm was not a one-way proposition, especially given the labor market situation which prevailed in Oregon at the time of the voucher trial. The employers could pick and choose among those looking for work. What type of establishments recruited OJT clients who were in the WIN program? The major difference between voucher and regular clients in relation to employer classification was that voucher clients were more likely to be selected by firms in the wholesale/retail trade industry, while regulars were more likely to be taken on in manufacturing and services (Table 24).

Another important and potentially significant finding related to the size of the employing organization. It is well known that large organizations have their own training programs and well-established personnel procedures. For this reason, it was believed that many large organizations would not want to bother with a voucher client. In fact, a small employer survey conducted in Portland showed that many companies with large numbers of employees wanted clients to be pre-screened by the WIN staff (Weidman, 1978). Therefore, we hypothesized that voucher clients would be more likely to obtain training in small firms, while regular clients, whose placement was mediated by a manpower specialist, would be more likely to obtain training in a large organization.

TABLE 24

EMPLOYER CLASSIFICATION OF THE VOUCHER AND REGULAR CLIENTS
(In Percentages)

Standard Industrial Classification of Employers[a]	Voucher	Regulars
Titles & Descriptions of Industries		
Contract construction.	4	2
Manufacturing.	21	28
Transportation, communication, electric, gas and sanitary services.	-	2
Wholesale and retail trade	32	20
Finance, insurance and real estate	6	4
Services	32	44
Government	4	-
Nonclassifiable establishments	-	-
Total %[b]	99	100
(N)	(47)	(54)

[a]Reference, Standard Industrial Classification Manual, Executive Office of the President, Bureau of the Budget (1967 ed.).

[b]Total may not be 100 due to rounding.

However, on examination of the data, this predicted difference was not supported. Overall, there was little difference in the extent to which voucher committers and regulars obtained OJT in small or large firms. The only group, based on sex/legal status, that appeared to conform to the predicted relationship, was voluntary vouchered women, 67% of which were in the smallest size firms and none in organizations of more than 50 employees (Table 25).

Cost of Training

Training costs consist of two elements--rate of pay and length of training. As pointed out in the introduction, the period of training could be longer for voucher clients than for those in the regular program.

In the aggregate, the starting hourly pay rates arranged by voucher committers averaged $3.60, compared to the average of $3.37 received by regulars. In general, higher average pay rates existed for the voucher committers regardless of demographic characteristics (Table 26). Among both voucher committers and regulars, on the average, men received higher starting hourly wages than did women, with mandatory women receiving more than voluntary women. In each group, clients between the ages of 25 and 34 had the highest wages.

Length of training was one of the more controversial aspects of the voucher experiment. There was concern--on the part of local and national WIN administrators--that employers (perhaps in collusion with trainees) would seek to obtain the training subsidy for the maximum time period a voucher could be used (one year) regardless of the actual training requirements of a given occupation. When among the early voucher contracts a few were indeed proposed for inflated training times, voucher regulations were changed. The maximum permissible length of training was redefined as the length of training allowed in the regular WIN OJT program and based on a Dictionary of Occupational Titles criterion plus (arbitrarily) 8 weeks (DOT+8).

The median length of training for the respondents' VOJT contracts was 25 weeks, while the median number of weeks of the ROJT contracts was 23 weeks. Hence, the fears that VOJT would run out of control were not well founded. In most cases, the voucher contracts were written for a period which fell short of the authorized DOT plus 8 weeks period.

TABLE 25

SIZE OF OJT EMPLOYERS, BY SELECTED DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS, VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS (In Percentages)[a]

	Employers' Size (Number of Employees)											
	Voucher Committers						Regulars					
	1-10 Employees	11-50 Employees	51-100 Employees	More Than 100 Employees	Total	(N)	1-10 Employees	11-50 Employees	51-100 Employees	More Than 100 Employees	Total	(N)
Sex/Program Status												
Men	52	26	9	13	100	(23)	47	33	-	20	100	(30)
All women	43	30	13	13	99	(23)	52	19	14	14	99	(21)
Women, mandatory WIN participants	29	29	21	21	100	(14)	50	33	8	8	99	(12)
Women, volunteer WIN participants	67	33	-	-	100	(9)	56	-	22	22	100	(9)
Education												
Less than 12 years	75	8	8	8	99	(12)	55	35	5	5	100	(20)
12 years	38	29	12	21	100	(24)	38	23	8	31	100	(26)
More than 12 years	40	50	10	-	100	(10)						b
Age												
16 to 24 years	62	23	15	-	100	(13)	50	27	-	23	100	(22)
25 to 34 years	54	27	4	14	99	(22)	53	21	11	16	101	(19)
35 or more years	18	36	18	27	99	(11)	40	40	10	10	100	(10)
All	48	28	11	13	100	(46)	49	27	6	18	100	(51)

[a]Excludes "no answers."

[b]Less than 9 cases.

TABLE 26

STARTING HOURLY PAY RATE IN OJT, BY SELECTED DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS, VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS
(In Percentages and By Mean)

	Starting Hourly Pay Rate													
	Voucher Committers							Regulars						
	Less Than $3.00	$3.00-3.99	$4.00-4.99	$5.00 or More	Total	(N)	Mean $	Less Than $3.00	$3.00-3.99	$4.00 4.99	$5.00 or More	Total	(N)	Mean $
Sex/Program Status														
Men.	17	29	33	21	100	(24)	4.04	16	47	28	9	100	(32)	3.67
All women.	35	57	9	-	101	(23)	3.14	55	36	9	-	100	(22)	2.94
Women, mandatory	29	64	7	-	100	(14)	3.27	46	38	15	-	99	(13)	2.99
Women, volunteer	44	44	11	-	99	(9)	2.93	67	33	-	-	100	(9)	2.86
Education														
Less than 12 years . . .	25	33	33	8	99	(12)	3.56	41	50	5	5	101	(22)	3.12
12 years	21	50	17	12	100	(24)	3.44	23	42	31	4	100	(26)	3.42
More than 12 years . . .	36	36	18	9	99	(11)	3.25	b	b	b	b	b	(b)	b
Age														
16 to 24 years	38	31	23	8	100	(13)	3.27	35	48	13	4	100	(23)	3.17
25 to 34 years	23	41	23	14	101	(22)	3.74	25	45	20	10	100	(20)	3.66
35 or more years	17	58	17	8	100	(12)	3.70	36	27	36	-	99	(11)	3.37
All.	25	43	21	11	100	(47)	3.60	31	43	20	6	100	(54)	3.37

[a]Excludes "no answers."

[b]Fewer than nine cases.

However, it must be pointed out that although the median differences in hourly wages and training times between the two plans appeared rather modest, voucher costs considerably exceeded those of regular training. This was mainly due to the much higher concentration of voucher clients compared to regulars being trained for 40 weeks or more (30% as against 15%) the mean difference in training times for the two groups was 7.3 weeks. Higher wages and longer training times brought the mean total cost of a VOJT contract 40% above that of a regular contract ($2,125 vs. $1,518). Extreme values influenced this difference, since in terms of the medians ($1,929 and $1,534), the VOJT cost was only 26% greater than that of the regulars. Overall, 46% of the voucher clients, and only 25% of the regulars incurred training costs of $2,000 or more (Table 27). The two most salient variables which affected total cost of training emerged as sex and training occupation. (See Appendix Table 3.) It was evident that the difference in costs by program type was almost entirely the result of males in the voucher program incurring much higher costs than any other group. Their mean cost of $2,696 was 74% higher than that for vouchered female trainees, as well as 66% and 98% higher, respectively, than those for males and females in the regular program. In fact, the total cost for training women in the VOJT program (an average of $1,553) was only 14% higher than that for their counterparts in ROJT. Vouchered men's training times exceeded those of regular male trainees for every occupational category often substantially so; this was not the case for females. In fact the average cost for vouchered females' training for blue collar work was lower than for their regular counterparts, with voucher clients in some categories earning lower wages and training for shorter time periods.

Trainees' Evaluation of Training

How satisfied were the trainees with the arrangements they (or WIN) had made for their training? Since voucher trainees experienced more autonomy, were more likely to locate training for the occupation they wanted and on the average received more money from training, one could reasonably hypothesize that voucher trainees would have a much more favorable evaluation of the training program than regulars, provided the two groups had obtained training positions of similar quality, in settings which they found congenial, and which offered genuine training opportunities.

TABLE 27

TOTAL COST OF TRAINING (PAYMENT TO EMPLOYER)
(In Percentages)[a]

Cost to Nearest Dollar	Voucher	Regular
Less than $1000.00	9	21
$1000 - $1999	45	55
$2000 - $2999	21	19
$3000 - $3900	17	4
$4000 or more	8	2
Total % (N)	100 (47)	101 (53)
Mean	$2,181 (47)	$1,518 (53)
Median	$1,929 (47)	$1,534 (53)

[a]Total may not be 100 percent due to rounding.

As shown in Table 28, the findings are mixed. Voucher Committers, especially men, were more likely to feel that they were in a training setting which trained them for the occupation they really wanted, and vouchered women were more likely to be satisfied with their pay rates than those who had been placed by WIN. But when it came to an overall appraisal of the training picture, only the men in the voucher program were more satisfied than regular trainees. Very large proportions of respondents in both groups (again, fewer vouchered than regular men, but still the vast majority) also felt that OJT training was a way for employers to obtain low-cost labor, rather than an optimal training arrangement.

Dissatisfaction with pay was related to pay levels; the mean wage rate of dissatisfied clients was $3.30, as against $3.58 for those who were satisfied. Dissatisfaction with training most often had to do with the quality of available equipment (for voucher committers) or simply the absence of a training component in the OJT situation (regulars). Similarly, when asked about problems encountered in OJT, both groups stressed quality-of-training problems, with 38% of the voucher committers complaining that the employer assigned the trainee to work which was different from the originally agreed-upon training occupation. For the regulars, the biggest complaint was that employers did not really train at all, but asked the trainee to perform simple, unskilled tasks; 28% of the regulars, and 21% of the voucher clients had this complaint (Appendix Table 4). The data in Table 29 and Appendix Table 4 clearly point to quality-of-training issues as those of greatest concern to participants. It is sometimes assumed that OJT is primarily a device for facilitating job access, and that WIN staff and trainees think of OJT positions as jobs, rather than training situations. From the data at hand, this does not appear to be the perception of most of the trainees. Clearly, they were more concerned with the acquisition of occupational skills or expertise than with various other aspects of the OJT position, such as salary, hours, or congenial relations with the employer and fellow-workers.

From these data, no clear-cut differences emerge with respect to vouchered vs. regular training; in both systems a fairly large proportion of trainees feel that the quality of training left much to be desired.

TABLE 28

SATISFACTION WITH VARIOUS ASPECTS OF ON-THE-JOB TRAINING, BY SEX/PROGRAM STATUS, VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS (In Percentages)[a]

	Voucher Committers					Regulars				
	Men	All Women	Mandatory	Volunteer	All Respondents	Men	All Women	Mandatory	Volunteer	All Respondents
Percent getting training for occupation really wanted.	71	61	64	56	66	47	57	58	56	51
(N)	(24)	(23)	(14)	(9)	(47)	(32)	(22)	(12)	(9)	(53)
Percent satisfied with OJT pay rate.	63	52	50	56	57	62	68	77	56	65
(N)	(24)	(23)	(14)	(9)	(47)	(32)	(22)	(13)	(9)	(54)
Percent satisfied (very or fairly) with actual On-The-Job training . .	71	70	71	67	70	59	71	67	78	64
(N)	(24)	(23)	(14)	(9)	(47)	(32)	(21)	(12)	(9)	(53)
Percent feeling, on basis of own experience, that OJT is not so much training as a way for employers to get low-cost labor . .	71	78	78	78	74	81	68	69	67	76
(N)	(24)	(23)	(14)	(9)	(47)	(32)	(22)	(13)	(9)	(54)

[a]Excludes "no answers."

TABLE 29

REASONS FOR SATISFACTION OR DISSATISFACTION WITH ON-THE-JOB TRAINING, VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS (in Percentages)[a], [b]

	Voucher Committers	Regulars
Reasons for Satisfaction		
Liked the organization, people, salary, hours, boss.	13	17
Liked the work, occupation	11	11
Liked the training, training was good/ thorough	38	40
Reasons for Dissatisfaction		
Received no training, training was a rip-off.	11	23
Received training in a position lower than that promised	11	6
Training was poor, poor instruction, old equipment.	21	17
Did not like employer.	4	4
Unhappy with salary.	6	-
(N)	(47)	(53)

[a]Excludes "no answers."

[b]Multiple responses permitted.

Two related questions, dealing with employer interest in quality of training, and trainer performance, suggest that the voucher clients fared somewhat better (Table 30), but when it comes to the bottom line, voucher clients are really at a disadvantage: 66% of the voucher committers as compared to 72% of the regular trainees considered themselves qualified to work in their training occupation.

TABLE 30

EVALUATION OF OJT: EMPLOYERS INTEREST AND TRAINING ABILITY OF TRAINERS VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS (In Percentages)[a]

	Voucher Committers	Regulars
Was your first OJT employer really interested in how well you were trained, only somewhat interested, or do you think he was not interested at all?		
Really interested.	50	43
Somewhat interested.	33	30
Not interested	17	28
Would you say that the people who trained you were very good at training, pretty good, or were poor at teaching you the skills or knowledge you needed to do your job?		
Very good trainers	45	36
Pretty good.	30	27
Poor trainers.	25	36
Do you consider yourself qualified to work in the occupation in which you were trained?		
yes.	66	72
Total %	100	99
(N)	(47)	(52)

[a]Excludes "no answers."

Training Completion

High attrition rates characterize most training programs, whether offered in schools or by employers. Noncompletion can result from the trainee's initiative ("dropping out") or from the initiative of the trainer (being expelled or terminated by the school or fired by the employer). Finally, while noncompletion is viewed negatively by program planner, schools or employers, it may not be so perceived by the student or trainee. For example, an OJT trainee who leaves prior to completion to accept a well-paying regular job, or a student who leaves training because of a change in her marital situation may feel that dropping out of training is a change for the better.

Because of the complexities of the "noncompletion" phenomenon, it is difficult to carry out simple assessments of the factors associated with it. In this chapter, we are presenting a wide range of data, usually in the fon of regression analyses, in an attempt to gain a better understanding of the relationship between vouchering and training completion. But to begin with, let us present the summary finding: vouchered trainees were less likely than regular trainees to complete training; 43% of the voucher committers and 56% of the regulars were completers.

On the face of it, these data do not bear out the contention of voucher proponents, who hypothesized that greater client involvement in making training decisions and training arrangements would lead to higher completion rates. But before we accept this conclusion, we need to examine more closely the completion experience of comparable groups of voucher and regular clients, the extent to which dropping out was voluntary or employer-initiated, and the extent to which dropping out was associated with the availability of employment (or other self-support) alternatives.

There were marked differences between voucher committers and regulars in the types of persons most and least likely to complete training (Table 31). Voucher clients who were trained in clerical positions, in firms with less than 50 employees and who earned between $3.00 and $3.99 per hour, were the most likely to have completed training. For regular clients, having trained in a service occupation, a larger firm, and earning $4.00 or more per hour, were all positively related to completing training.

TABLE 31

TRAINING COMPLETION BY SELECTED OJT CHARACTERISTICS, VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS (In Percentages)[a]

	Percent Completing Training			
	Voucher Committers		Regulars	
	%	(N)	%	(N)
Training Occupation				
Subprofessional/Technical, Managerial/Administrative	-	(b)	-	(-)
Clerical	62	(13)	40	(10)
Foreman/Craftsmen/Operatives	41	(17)	45	(33)
Service	30	(10)	100	(11)
Size of Employer				
1 to 10 employees	45	(22)	32	(25)
11 to 50 employees	46	(13)	71	(14)
More than 50 employees	27	(11)	83	(12)
OJT Hourly Pay Rate				
Less than $3.00	42	(12)	53	(17)
$3.00 to $3.99	59	(17)	52	(23)
$4.00 or more	38	(13)	64	(14)
All	43	(47)	56	(54)

[a]Excludes "no answers."

[b]Less than 9 cases.

In both groups, clients were also more likely to finish training if they had looked for OJT in a specific occupation. But with respect to self-perceived client autonomy--whose importance is one of the tenets of the vouchering concept--the findings are ambiguous (Table 32): autonomy was associated with higher completion rates for voucher clients, but not for the regular clients.

TABLE 32

TRAINING COMPLETION BY SELECTED WIN PROGRAM CHARACTERISTICS, VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS (In Percentages)[a]

	Percent Completing Training			
	Voucher Committers		Regulars	
	%	(N)	%	(N)
Occupational Commitment				
Looked for OJT in any training occupation	33	(18)	52	(23)
Looked for OJT in specific training occupation	48	(29)	58	(31)
Experienced Autonomy				
High autonomy	53	(17)	44	(9)
Moderate autonomy	38	(24)	67	(21)
Low autonomy	-	(b)	50	(24)

[a]Excludes "no answers."

[b]Less than 9 cases.

Several other factors appear to be strongly related to completion of training. Table 33 presents many of the satisfaction measures from the study as they relate to completion. First, having been in a training occupation one really wanted was markedly significant for voucher trainees' completion: twice the percentage of voucher participants completed training if it was what they really wanted. This variable had no marked impact on regulars' completion rates, but with respect to other measures of satisfaction with training, completion rates for vouchered and regular respondents were higher among those who were more satisfied.

Among the demographic variables, the only one that had an unequivocally strong association with training completion was the number of dependents (Table 34). These data reflect the well-documented difficulties experienced by low-income persons with many dependents--and especially female heads of household--when they enroll in training programs or attempt to hold jobs requiring regular hours. Among voucher committers, having a small family (two or fewer dependents) actually contributed substantially, net of other variables, to completion; such a relationship was not established among the regular clients. Occupational commitment, on the other hand, was associated with training completion for both groups. Voucher holders with the highest educational attainment prior to WIN were much less likely than less-educated voucher trainees to complete training.[1]

Table 35 suggests that training occupation had a substantial relationship to training completion in the case of regulars, and that size of the OJT employer had an influence among both groups. Regulars who trained in service occupations were more likely to complete training, while voucher clients were negatively influenced by training in this occupation. Size of employer, as was discussed earlier in this report, had a strong independent effect on both client groups, but in opposite directions. Being in a large firm had an extremely strong negative influence for voucher clients (-33 percentage points), while it had an extremely strong positive influence (+28 percentage points) among regular clients.

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[1] It should be noted that some of these noncompleters found employment or college-level training under other auspices.

TABLE 33

TRAINING COMPLETION, BY SELECTED EVALUATION ITEMS, VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS (In Percentages)[a]

	Percent Completing Training			
	Voucher Committers		Regulars	
	%	(N)	%	(N)
Was Training Occupation Really Wanted by Trainee?				
Really wanted	52	(31)	56	(27)
Not really wanted	25	(16)	58	(26)
Satisfaction With OJT Pay				
Satisfied	52	(27)	60	(35)
Not satisfied	30	(20)	47	(19)
General Satisfaction With Actual Training				
Satisfied (very or fairly)	45	(33)	65	(34)
Not satisfied (not very or not at all)	36	(14)	42	(19)
Evaluation of Trainers				
Very good trainers	48	(21)	74	(19)
Pretty good trainers	36	(14)	43	(14)
Poor trainers	42	(12)	47	(19)
Was Employer Interested in How Well Trainee was Trained?				
Very interested	50	(24)	70	(23)
Somewhat interested	33	(15)	56	(16)
Not interested	-	(b)	33	(15)

[a]Excludes "no answers."

[b]Less than 9 cases.

TABLE 34

REGRESSION ESTIMATES OF THE INFLUENCES OF DEMOGRAPHIC AND PARTICIPATION CHARACTERISTICS ON TRAINING COMPLETION, VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS

(In percentage points of deviation from the grand mean)

	(N)		%	
	Voucher Committers	Regular	Voucher Committers	Regular
Grand Mean (Percent completed training)	(47)	(54)	43	56
Sex/Program Status				
Men	(24)	(32)	-08	06
Women, mandatory WIN participants	(14)	(13)	08	-16
Women, volunteer WIN participants	(9)	(9)	*	*
Education				
Less than 12 years	(12)	(22)	18	-12
12 years	(24)	(26)	-02	15
More than 12 years	(11)	(6)	-15	*
Age				
16 to 24 years	(13)	(23)	-18	-07
25 to 34 years	(22)	(20)	09	12
35 years or more	(12)	(11)	04	-08
Number of Dependents				
0 to 2	(20)	(38)	19	05
3 or more	(27)	(16)	-14	-11
Occupational Commitment				
Looked for OJT in any training occupation	(18)	(23)	-17	-06
Looked for OJT in particular training occupation	(29)	(31)	11	05
Experienced Autonomy				
High autonomy	(17)	(9)	03	-04
Moderate or low autonomy	(30)	(45)	-02	01
Adequacy of Staff Information/Advice				
Needed more information or advice	(14)	(22)	13	-11
Did not need more information or advice	(33)	(32)	-02	07
R^2			.26	.18

[a]The regression estimates in this table are based on numbers of cases which often are marginal in terms of the technical constraints imposed on Multiple Classification Analyses. While obviously unreliable values have been replaced by asterisks (*), the precise reliability of the values shown in this table is unknown. Readers are, therefore, cautioned against interpreting them as precise measures of the relative strengths of effects. See Appendix D for a note on the interpretation of regression findings.

TABLE 35

REGRESSION ESTIMATES OF INFLUENCES ON TRAINING COMPLETION, VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS
(In percentage points of deviation from the grand mean for completed training)[a]

	(N)			
	Voucher Committers	Regulars	Voucher Committers	Regulars
Grand Mean (percent completed training)			43	56
Sex/Program Status				
Men	(24)	(32)	-13	03
Women, mandatory WIN participants	(14)	(13)	22	-13
Women, volunteer WIN participants	(9)	(9)	*	*
Education				
Less than 12 years	(12)	(22)	01	-01
12 years	(24)	(26)	01	04
More than 12 years	(11)	(6)	-04	*
Training Occupation				
Professional/Technical and Administrative	(7)	(-)	*	-[b]
Clerical	(13)	(10)	02	-23
Foreman, Craftsmen and Operatives	(17)	(33)	05	-05
Service	(10)	(11)	6	37
Size of OJT Employer				
1 to 10 employees	(23)	(28)	08	-17
11 to 50 employees	(13)	(14)	14	10
51 or more employees	(11)	(12)	-33	28
Length of Training				
1 to 26 weeks	(27)	(43)	17	04
27 or more weeks	(20)	(11)	-22	-16
Satisfaction with OJT Pay				
Satisfied	(27)	(35)	13	02
Not satisfied	(20)	(19)	-18	-04
Satisfaction with Training				
Satisfied	(33)	(35)	03	10
Not satisfied	(14)	(19)	-08	-18
R^2			.35	.50

[a]The regression estimates in this table are based on numbers of cases which often are marginal in terms of the technical constraints imposed on Multiple Classification Analyses. While obviously unreliable values have been replaced by asterisks (*), the precise reliability of the values shown in this table is unknown. Readers are, therefore, cautioned against interpreting them as precise measures of the relative strengths of effects.

[b]No cases.

While we have no demonstrable explanation for this finding, at a number of points in this study as well as in earlier studies of institutional training, we felt that there might well be some personality differences between the participants in the two programs. Voucher clients both defined their relationship with the program and acted in ways that demonstrated a feeling of greater freedom of action. They were more likely to feel that their decisions were reversible and not constrained by external influences. We suggest that, within this perceived context of greater freedom of action, voucher committers were less amenable to the more rigorous, bureaucratic constraints likely to exist in larger firms, and therefore more likely to be fired by the employer or to drop out of training. Regulars, on the other hand, were already involved in a relatively more structured situation in which they were not as likely to define their own roles as incorporating a legitimate freedom to change decisions once made. For them, the bureaucratic rigor of the larger firms might have served as an influence reinforcing the perceived necessity of conforming to external influences. Insofar as these hypotheses are valid, they would suggest that vouchered and conventional OJT are each most effective in and appropriate for different types of training situations and clients: the former for training in less bureaucratically structured occupations and smaller firms, the latter for training in more bureaucratically structured occupations and larger firms.

Table 35 also shows the effect on completion of other aspects of the training situation--length and client satisfaction with pay and with training. Shorter training--of 26 weeks duration or less--seems to have been condusive to completing training among both groups. Clients whose training program exceeded 26 weeks in length were less likely to complete training; this finding is in line with widely held beliefs among WIN staffs. It is also clear that dissatisfaction with pay and training influenced completion for both groups of trainees.

Noncompletion: Voluntary and Involuntary

Voucher clients were somewhat more likely than regulars to terminate training involuntarily, because they were laid off or fired; more marked was the difference between men and women, with women in both groups much more

likely to drop out of their own volition (Table 36). Of course, the number of cases is very small, and generalizations are hazardous, but the data are consistent with earlier studies and observations reporting difficulties experienced by women on welfare who seek to combine work or training and family responsibilities.

TABLE 36

CIRCUMSTANCES OF DROPPING OUT OF OJT, BY SEX:
VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS
(In Percentages)[a]

Circumstances	Voucher Committers			Regulars		
	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Quit	41	78	54	36	100	63
Laid off or fired. . .	47	11	35	50	-	29
Other (including business failure . .	12	11	12	14	-	8
Total.	100	100	101	100	100	100
(N)	(17)	(9)	(26)	(14)	(18)	(24)

[a]Excludes "no answers."

Among both the vouchered and regular dropouts who quit, half did so because they found better jobs or training. Twenty-two percent of the male voucher clients went on to a different OJT position, and two-thirds of them completed their subsequent training. Vouchered dropouts who did not quit because they found work or training gave dissatisfaction with training or the employing organization as their reason for dropping out, while regulars most often indicated that they quit due to personal problems.

Summing Up

On balance, it appears that in terms of training, mandatory women and WIN participants with small families benefitted most from the shift to vouchering. For men, the regular training option yielded higher benefits.

The voucher system upgraded the occupational goals of many clients and enabled them to obtain training in line with these goals. It also yielded slightly higher pay rates, but it did not expose them to training of higher quality, or to training positions where they were immune from layoffs or firings prior to the agreed upon training time. Vouchered clients showed considerable ability to deal with the labor market, as demonstrated by the behavior of those trainees who quit OJT positions because they were able to find others that seemed more attractive or because they found regular jobs. We suspect that the job-seeking experience acquired during the search for voucher commitment helped these clients to become more competent job-seekers, but we cannot rule out the role of personality characteristics which may have led these WIN clients to volunteer for the voucher program in the first place.

CHAPTER V

Posttraining Activities

Previous research has shown the importance of early posttraining activities with respect to longer-run labor force behavior of WIN participants. Richardson and Dunning (1975) noted an important capture effect, with early post-WIN behavior of young WIN participants tending to be reflected in longer-run patterns. In his analysis of the outcomes of vouchered institutional training in Portland, Dunning (1976) noted a very strong relationship between first month activities and longer-run labor force behavior. Similar findings were also noted by Schiller (1974).

First Month Activities

In the Portland Vouchered OJT Program, there were marked differences between voucher committers and regulars during their first month in the labor force after training, when outcomes for persons in comparable training occupations were examined. Among voucher committers, clerical workers were particularly likely to be either working or out of the labor force. Among regulars, those who had received training in service occupations were the most likely to be working. For both groups, those who trained for service occupations were the least likely to be out of the labor force (OLF), while those with training in blue collar occupations were the least likely to be working.

Neither size of the employing firm nor OJT wages were systematically related to the likelihood of working or being OLF among voucher committers. Such a relationship did exist for the regulars (Table 37). As size of OJT employer and OJT rate of pay increased, so did the proportion of regulars that were employed during the first month following training. Not surprisingly, the most important differences were attributable to training completion. Almost all of the voucher committers (90%) who completed training were working during the first month. Among the voucher committers who dropped out, however, only 41% were working. Essentially the same pattern appeared among the regulars, although a somewhat smaller majority were working (75%), and an even smaller proportion of dropouts were likely to be working (25%).

TABLE 37

IMMEDIATE (1ST MONTH) POSTTRAINING ACTIVITIES, BY OJT CHARACTERISTICS, VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS[a]

OJT Characteristics	Voucher Committers						Regulars					
	WKG.	OJT.	LKG.	OLF.	Total	(N)	WKG.	OJT.	LKG.	OLF.	Total	(N)
Training Occupation												
Professional, Technical and Administrative. . .	-	-	-	-	-	(b)	-	-	-	-	-	(-)
Clerical.	77	-	-	23	100	(13)	57	29	-	14	100	(7)
Foremen, Craftsmen and Operatives.	47	6	29	18	100	(17)	38	3	33	25	99	(36)
Service	60	-	30	10	100	(10)	73	-	18	9	100	(11)
Size of OJT Employer												
1 to 10 employees	45	9	23	23	100	(22)	36	8	32	24	100	(25)
11 to 50 employees.	69	8	8	15	100	(13)	50	-	29	21	100	(14)
More than 50 employees. . .	55	-	36	9	100	(11)	67	7	7	20	101	(15)
OJT Hourly Pay												
$2.99 or less	58	8	25	8	99	(12)	29	6	29	35	99	(17)
$3.00 - 3.99.	65	-	20	15	100	(20)	48	4	26	22	100	(23)
$4.00 or more	40	13	20	27	100	(15)	71	7	21	-	99	(14)
Training Completion												
Completed training.	90	-	5	5	100	(20)	73	3	17	7	100	(30)
Dropped out of training . .	30	11	33	26	100	(27)	17	8	38	38	101	(24)
All	55	6	21	17	99	(47)	48	6	26	20	100	(54)

[a]Excludes no answers.

[b]Less than 9 cases.

Key to Column headings:
WKG. - Working during first posttraining month.
OJT. - In OJT other than first OJT during first posttraining month.
LKG. - Looking for work during first posttraining month.
OLF. - Out of the labor force during first posttraining month.

This relationship is almost entirely explained by the fact that all of the vouchered completers in the labor force and almost all of the regulars stayed on with their OJT employers (Table 38).

TABLE 38

IMMEDIATE (FIRST MONTH) POSTTRAINING ACTIVITIES, COMPLETERS AND DROPOUTS (In Percentages)

	Voucher Committers		Regulars	
	Completers	Dropouts	Completers	Dropouts
Employed by training employer	90	-	72	-
Employed by other employer[a]	-	41	3	25
Looking for work	-	33	17	38
Out of the labor force	10	26	7	38
Total %	100	100	99	101
(N)	(20)	(27)	(29)	(25)

[a]Includes those in other OJT positions.

Relatively few trainees who were not retained by the OJT employer and who had completed the program had located other jobs: those in the voucher program had withdrawn from the labor force; most of the regulars were looking for work. But for those who had not completed OJT, the situation was quite different. As expected, none of them found employment with their OJT employer. But vouchered dropouts were more likely to be working (it will be recalled that a sizable proportion of the voucher holders terminated their vouchered OJT in order to accept regular jobs or different OJT positions) and less likely to have dropped out of the labor force. But clearly, the most favorable outcomes are associated with completion, which generally leads to subsequent employment with the OJT employer. When this sequence--which, of course, undergirds the whole subsidized OJT concept--breaks down, the

likelihood that training by itself will be conducive to immediate employment for WIN clients is rather slim.

Measures of trainee satisfaction (getting training in a wanted occupation, evaluating employers very favorably, and a high degree of satisfaction with the training) were also associated with relatively high probabilities of working during the first month after training for both voucher committers and regulars. However, dissatisfaction was not always associated with the lowest probability of working, nor with a higher probability of being out of the labor force (Appendix Table 5). Further, few systematic differences existed between the groups when considering characteristics associated with the job search, such as occupational commitment, level of autonomy, and adequacy of staff information (Appendix Table 6).

The results of examining the net effect of each of these variables is presented in Table 39. Regression analysis showed that one factor stood out most clearly and consistently among both voucher committers and regulars as having a substantial influence on working during the first month out of training; namely, training completion. The importance of completion noticed earlier remained very strong for both groups even when considered net of other influences. Low OJT pay rate and dissatisfaction with OJT pay were associated with lower probability of working among regulars, but not among voucher committers when all other factors are held constant. It should also be mentioned that there was a consistent, though not strong, independent negative effect between being a volunteer female and working during the first month. These and other study data suggest that mothers of young children who volunteered for the program were perhaps more interested in training (possibly to improve their employability prospects at a later time) than in immediate employment--or else could not make satisfactory arrangements to deal with child care.

Other Posttraining Work Experiences

All study participants--voucher and regular clients, those who had committed the voucher and those who had not--were interviewed approximately one year after they had either completed their training or dropped out of OJT.

TABLE 39

REGRESSION ESTIMATES OF INFLUENCES ON THE PROBABILITY OF WORKING DURING THE FIRST MONTH OUT OF O.J.T. VOUCHER COMMITTERS (VC) AND REGULARS (R)
(In Percentage Points of Deviation from the Grand Mean)[a]

	(N)		Estimates--Working During First Month			
	VC	R	VC	R	VC	R
GRAND MEAN			62	54	62	54
Sex/Program Status						
Men	(24)	(32)	06	01	16	-05
Women, mandatory WIN participants	(14)	(13)	-00	06	-16	17
Women, volunteer WIN participants	(9)	(9)	-14	-13	-18	-08
Education						
Less than 12 years	(12)	(22)	-13	-06	-10	01
12 years	(26)	(26)	-00	-05	01	-11
More than 12 years	(11)	(6)	15	*	09	*
Occupational Commitment						
Looked for O.J.T. in any training occupation	(18)	(23)	03	-07		
Looked for O.J.T. in particular training occupation	(29)	(31)	-02	04		
Experienced Autonomy						
High autonomy	(17)	(9)	04	*		
Moderate or low autonomy	(30)	(45)	-02	01		
Adequacy of Staff Information Advice						
Needed more information/advice	(16)	(22)	-11	-02		
Did not need more information/advice	(33)	(32)	05	02		
Training Occupation						
Professional, Technical and Administrative	(7)	(-)			*	*
Clerical	(13)	(10)			11	10
Foreman, Craftsman and Operatives	(17)	(33)			-10	-06
Service	(10)	(11)			04	09
Size of Employer						
1 to 10 employees	(25)	(28)			-07	03
11 to 50 employees	(13)	(14)			04	-09
51 or more employees	(11)	(12)			11	05
O.J.T. Hourly Pay						
$2.99 or less	(12)	(17)			02	-32
$3.00 to 3.99	(20)	(23)			03	09
$4.00 or more	(15)	(14)			-06	25
Length of Training						
1 to 26 weeks	(27)	(43)			-06	26
27 weeks or more	(20)	(11)			09	-07
O.J.T. Pay Satisfaction						
Satisfied	(27)	(35)			-14	-06
Not satisfied	(20)	(19)			20	12
Training Satisfaction						
Satisfied	(33)	(35)			01	-01
Not satisfied	(14)	(19)			-02	02
Training Completion						
Completed	(20)	(30)	31	25	38	24
Dropped Out	(27)	(24)	-25	-32	-29	-30
R^2			.32	.38	.45	.60

[a]The regression estimates in this table are based on numbers of cases which often are marginal in terms of the technical constraints imposed on Multiple Classification Analyses. While obviously unreliable values have been replaced by asterisks (*), the precise reliability of the values shown in this table is unknown. Readers are, therefore, cautioned against interpreting them as precise measures of the relative strengths of effects.

[b]No cases.

The time span between training completion or termination and the interview varied from 1 year to 18 months, largely for logistical reasons, since training times varied, some participants were allowed to "re-commit" the voucher if their first OJT arrangement fell through, and locating participants was often difficult, requiring protracted search activities. The data shown here are therefore statistically weak, and should be interpreted as suggestive of trends, rather than precise outcome measures. The small number of cases in the various subgroups (which made it impossible, for example, to examine separately outcomes for completers and dropouts except in the context of the regression analysis) and our inability to locate a sizable proportion of the original participants despite strenuous efforts further reinforce the need to interpret these data cautiously.

In the 12-18 months' time span under study, 85% of all voucher committers, 81% of the regulars and 77% of the voucher noncommitters worked at some time (Table 40). It should be noted that substantial proportions of these held only one job during the posttraining period--75% of the voucher committers, 66% of the regulars, and 49% of the noncommitters.

Here, again, the benefits of the ideal OJT sequence are demonstrated: 45% of the voucher committers who worked at some time, and 48% of the regulars who did so, were those working for their OJT employer. But these proportions are not as high as was the case for immediate posttraining employment. In other words, at some point most of those who were not retained by the OJT employer as well as those who had not committed the voucher or had dropped out of training were also working. The extent to which the work situation and work-related behavior of these various ex-trainees differed over time will be examined in the balance of this chapter.

Even when they dropped out of training or left their OJT employer after completing training, voucher committers who worked at some point after training were generally self-reliant in their job hunting behavior. Disregarding those who stayed on with their OJT employers, 77% of the voucher committers who worked at some point after completing training said they found their first job themselves, while only 14% said they got their jobs through WIN (Table 41). Regulars in the same situation, however, were less likely to rely on themselves (52%) and more apt to rely on WIN (30%). All voucher noncommitters were quite like the regulars, 59% having found their own first jobs and 32% aided by WIN.

TABLE 40

PROPORTION OF VOUCHER COMMITTERS, REGULARS AND VOUCHER NONCOMMITTERS WHO WORKED AT SOME TIME AFTER TRAINING, BY SEX/PROGRAM STATUS
(In Percentages)

	Percent Who Worked[a]					
	Voucher Committers		Regulars		Voucher Noncommitters	
	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)
Men	88	(24)	81	(32)	84	(45)
All women	83	(23)	82	(22)	70	(50)[b]
Women, mandatory WIN participants . .	93	(14)	62	(13)	74	(34)
Women, volunteer WIN participants . .	67	(9)	89	(9)	57	(14)
All	85	(47)	81	(54)	77	(95)

[a]Includes OJT subsequent to first OJT for Voucher Committers and Regulars.

[b]Includes 2 additional women for whom program status is unknown.

TABLE 41

SOURCES OF ASSISTANCE FOR FINDING FIRST POSTTRAINING JOBS: VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS WHO DIDN'T STAY ON WITH OJT EMPLOYER & ALL VOUCHER NONCOMMITTERS[a]

Found First Job Through:	Voucher Committers	Regulars	Voucher Noncommitters
Self	77	52	59
WIN	14	30	32
Friend	5	4	3
Other	5	13	6
Total %	101	99	100
(N)	(22)	(23)	(71)

[a]Excludes "no answers."

Among noncommitters who worked at some time, 44% found non-OJT work within two months of receiving their vouchers, and three-quarters of these jobs were found while the clients were looking for an OJT opening. Over half of these said that employers were reluctant to enter into a vouchered training agreement because the jobs were available anyway or they objected to the red tape and government involvement. Some also said that employers told them no training was necessary for the position. To a minor extent, the voucher program lost out to the state-sponsored Public Service Employment (PSE) program--four voucher noncommitters said they took state jobs (PSE) for which vouchers were of no use.

There was very little difference between voucher committers and regulars in the time elapsed between training and first jobs, if they worked after training at all; the mean number of months was 1.6 and 1.3, respectively. If they did not stay with their OJT employer, it took voucher committers a bit longer than regulars (3.2 vs. 2.5 months) to move into jobs And, although they were less likely to work at some point after having quit the program than the other groups, noncommitters who did work tended to move into jobs more quickly (mean 1.7 months). This leads us to speculate that over and above the cases of noncommitters who found non-OJT jobs while looking for vouchered OJT, participation in the vouchered OJT program might

have had a fallout effect stimulating some noncommitters to stay in the labor force and press the search for some kind of work.

What types of jobs did those who were able to obtain employment find and were they consistent with the type of training received? The first jobs which voucher committers, regulars and noncommitters found were predominately in either blue collar or service fields (Table 42). Taken in the aggregate, the three groups of respondents did not differ greatly with respect to the broad occupational categories into which their jobs could be classified. Voucher committers were most likely to obtain jobs in the service field or blue collar work, regulars in blue collar work and noncommitters were more likely to find work in clerical positions.

Voucher committers received the highest hourly pay rates in their first jobs (median of $3.74) followed by noncommitters ($3.56) and finally regulars ($3.41). In terms of monthly pay, however, voucher committers and regulars were virtually identical, both receiving slightly higher pay than noncommitters. Since not all individuals worked the same number of hours per week, this last measure of pay is a more meaningful indicator of actual first job earnings.

In terms of monthly pay, men did substantially better than any of the women within each of the three groups. Mandatory women in the voucher committing group stood out as particularly highly paid among women, with voluntary noncommitting females earning about as much. While women were more likely than men to work part-time, on the average women worked only two to three hours less per week than men. Hence, monthly income differences by sex are largely attributable to the lower hourly wage rates paid to women (Appendix Table 7).

In all three groups men tended to concentrate most heavily in blue collar occupations with smaller, but still substantial, proportions in service work. Women were found most frequently in service or clerical work. We would expect, of course, that the first job occupational distribution would reflect the training distribution for committers and regulars. By and large, first posttraining jobs were in occupations that were consistent with the voucher committers' and regulars' training occupations. This was so for two-thirds of each group (Table 43). Among voucher committers, men were seen to have been a bit more likely than women to get jobs in occupations that were consistent with training, while the opposite obtained among the regulars.

TABLE 42

CHARACTERISTICS (OCCUPATIONS AND PAY) OF FIRST POSTTRAINING JOBS, BY SEX/PROGRAM STATUS, VOUCHER COMMITTERS, AND VOUCHER NONCOMMITTERS[a]
(In Percentages)

	Voucher Committers					Regulars					Voucher Noncommitters				
	Men	Women			Both Sexes	Men	Women			Both Sexes	Men	Women			Both Sexes
		All	Mandatory	Voluntary			All	Mandatory	Voluntary			All[b]	Mandatory	Voluntary	
First Job Occupations															
Professional, Technical and Administrative	10	16	23		12	8	6	-		7	5	9	4		7
Clerical	-	26	31		12	4	33	30		16	5	44	46		24
Foremen, Craftsmen, and Operatives	67	5	-		38	65	17	30		45	59	12	12		37
Service	24	53	46		38	23	44	40		32	30	35	38		32
Total % (N)	101 (21)	100 (19)	100 (13)	(c)	100 (40)	100 (26)	100 (18)	100 (10)	(c)	100 (44)	99 (37)	100 (34)	100 (24)	(c)	100 (71)
First Job Hourly Pay Rate															
$1.01 - 2.25	6	-	-		3	-	6	-		3	-	4	-		2
$2.26 - 3.00	22	27	18		24	26	44	44		33	31	25	38		29
$3.01 - 4.00	28	40	46		33	44	31	22		38	28	50	50		38
$4.01 - 5.00	11	27	27		18	30	12	22		23	12	8	6		11
$5.01 - 7.50	28	7	9		18	-	6	11		3	16	12	6		14
$7.51 or more	6	-	-		3	-	-	-		-	12	-	-		7
Total % (N) Median	101 (18) $3.91	101 (15) $3.67	100 (11) $3.81	(c)	99 (33) $3.74	100 (23) $3.41	99 (16) $3.21	99 (9) $3.51	(c)	100 (39) $3.41	99 (32) $3.68	99 (24) $3.47	100 (16) $3.26	(c)	101 (56) $3.56
First Job Monthly Pay															
$450 or less	27	28	17		27	-	29	33		12	14	29	32		20
$451 to 800	33	61	67		48	80	59	44		71	44	57	63		50
$801 or more	40	11	17		24	20	12	22		17	42	14	5		30
Total % (N)	100 (15)	100 (18)	101 (12)	(c)	99 (33)	100 (25)	100 (17)	99 (9)	(c)	100 (42)	100 (36)	100 (28)	100 (14)	(c)	100 (64)
Median	$715	$539	$694		$602	$688	$516	$516		$605	$708	$521	$500	(c)	$584

[a]Excludes "no answers."

[b]Includes 2 additional women whose program status is unknown.

[c]Less than 9 cases.

TABLE 43

CONSISTENCY OF FIRST POSTTRAINING JOBS WITH TRAINING OCCUPATION, BY SEX/PROGRAM STATUS: VOUCHER COMMITTERS, REGULARS (In Percentages)[a]

	Voucher Committers			Regulars		
	Men	Women	Both	Men	Women	Both
First Job-Training Occupation						
Consistent.	70	63	67	61	76	68
Inconsistent, first job higher.	10	21	15	22	12	18
Inconsistent, first job lower	20	16	18	17	12	15
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	101
(N)	(20)	(19)	(39)	(23)	(17)	(40)

[a]Excludes "no answers."

Those who went into different occupations were almost evenly divided between those who upgraded and downgraded their occupational status compared to their training goals.

Employment in the first posttraining job yielded only modest pay increases for both voucher committers and regulars. Majorities (58% of committers and 54% of regulars) remained in the same pay range as during training in their first jobs after OJT. Nonetheless, over one-third of each group moved into a higher pay category, while only very small proportions dropped to a lower pay rate. Although voucher committers received higher pay in both OJT and first jobs than regulars, the median hourly pay rate increased almost identically for both groups (Table 44).

Employment Stability

Because not all WIN clients in this study had spent the same amount of time in the labor force at the time they were interviewed, data on employment stability do not lend themselves to rigorous intergroup comparisons.

In Table 45, findings are shown for voucher committers and regulars only, since they had roughly comparable labor force times (although vouchered training was slightly longer). These data suggest that in the aggregate, voucher holders were slightly higher on two job stability measures: 61% were still on their first job (as against 56% of the regulars) and only 2% had held more than two jobs (as against 11% of the regulars). These are small differences and do not point to longer-term benefits of vouchering with respect to employment stability.

Our data do not suggest that job changes during the period under study led to noteworthy changes in the employment situation of these respondents. Among those clients who obtained a second job, the likelihood that it would be the same or a closely related occupation was similar for both regulars and their vouchered counterparts (62% and 67%, respectively). Voucher noncommitters, on the other hand, were noticeable less likely to stay in the same or a closely related occupation in their second job; only 47% were so classified. We should note, however, that quite a few of the inconsistent job changes among noncommitters were between jobs quite different in content, but both at rather low skill levels in the service field.

TABLE 44

PAY ADVANCEMENT: OJT TO FIRST POSTTRAINING JOB; VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS
(In Dollars and Percentages)[a]

Voucher Committers

First Job Hourly Pay Rate	OJT Starting Hourly Pay Rate						Total
	$1.01-2.25	$2.26-3.00	$3.01-4.00	$4.01-5.00	$5.01-7.50	$7.51 or More	
$1.01 - 2.25		1					1
$2.26 - 3.00		7	1				8
$3.01 - 4.00		3	8				11
$4.01 - 5.00		2	2	2			6
$5.01 - 7.50		1	3		2		6
$7.51 or more					1		1
Total		14	14	2	3		33

(frequencies)

Less pay in 1st job

More pay in 1st job

Summary	%
Made more	36
Made same	58
Made less	6
Total %	100
(N)	(33)
Median, OJT	3.22
Median, 1st job	3.74
Difference in medians	.52

Regulars

First Job Hourly Pay Rate	OJT Starting Hourly Pay Rate						Total
	$1.01-2.25	$2.26-3.00	$3.01-4.00	$4.01-5.00	$5.01-7.50	$7.51 or More	
$1.01 - 2.25		1					1
$2.26 - 3.00		12	1				13
$3.01 - 4.00		9	5	1			15
$4.01 - 5.00		2	3	4			9
$5.01 - 7.50				1			1
$7.51 or more							
Total		24	9	6			39

(frequencies)

Less pay in 1st job

More pay in 1st job

Summary	%
Made more	38
Made same	54
Made less	8
Total %	100
(N)	(39)
Median, OJT	2.88
Median, 1st job	3.41
Difference in medians	.53

[a]Excludes "no answers."

TABLE 45

POSTTRAINING JOB STABILITY, BY SEX; COMMITTERS, REGULARS AND VOUCHER NONCOMMITTERS[a]
(In Percentages)

	Voucher Committers	Regulars	Voucher Noncommitters
Percent still in first job.	61	58	35
(N)	(38)	(43)	(71)
Among Those not Still in First Job, Circumstances of Termination Were:			
Quit.	40	58	50
Fired or laid off	60	42	41
Other, including business failure	-	-	9
(N)	(15)	(19)	(46)
Number of Jobs Held:			
One	75	66	49
Two	22	23	34
Three or more	2	11	16
(N)	(40)	(44)	(73)

[a]Excludes "no answers."

Majorities of each group again remained in their same general pay ranges as their first jobs, but regulars quite often moved to a lower pay category, while voucher clients of both types tended more often to move up (Table 46).

Employment Status at Time of Interview

At the time of interview, 57% of the voucher committers, 65% of the regulars and 50% of the noncommitters were actually working. Substantial numbers in each group were looking for work. Thus, labor force participation was quite high--74% among voucher committers, 87% among regulars, and 72% among noncommitters. These data, however, translate into relatively high unemployment rates in all three groups--23% among committers, 26% among regulars, and 31% among noncommitters.

TABLE 46

PAY ADVANCEMENT: FIRST TO SECOND POSTTRAINING JOB; VOUCHER COMMITTERS REGULARS AND VOUCHER NONCOMMITTERS[a]
(In Dollars and Percentages)

Voucher Committers

Second Job Hourly Pay Rate	First Job Hourly Pay Rate: $1.01-2.25	$2.26-3.00	$3.01-4.00	$4.01-5.00	$5.01-7.50	$7.51 or More	Total
$1.01 - 2.25							
$2.26 - 3.00	1	1	1				3
$3.01 - 4.00			1	1			2
$4.01 - 5.00				1			1
$5.01 - 7.50							
$7.51 or more						1	1
Total	1	1	2	2		1	7

Less pay in 2nd job

More pay in 2nd job

(frequencies)

Summary	%
Made more	29
Made same	57
Made less	14
Total %	100
(N)	(7)
Median, 1st job	3.51
Median, 2nd job	3.51
Difference in medians	.00

Regulars

$1.01 - 2.25			1*				1*
$2.26 - 3.00		4					4
$3.01 - 4.00		2	4				6
$4.01 - 5.00				1			1
$5.01 - 7.50				1	2		3
$7.51 or more							
Total		6	7	2			15

Less pay in 2nd job

More pay in 2nd job

(frequencies)

*Less than $1.00

Summary	%
Made more	7
Made same	53
Made less	40
Total %	100
(N)	(15)
Median, 1st job	3.51
Median, 2nd job	3.29
Difference in medians	-.22

Voucher Noncommitters

$1.01 - 2.25	1						1
$2.26 - 3.00		4	2				6
$3.01 - 4.00		2	3	1			6
$4.01 - 5.00			2				2
$5.01 - 7.50			3	1	3		7
$7.51 or more						2	2
Total	1	6	10	2	3	2	24

Less pay in 2nd job

More pay in 2nd job

(frequencies)

Summary	%
Made more	33
Made same	54
Made less	12
Total %	99
(N)	(24)
Median, 1st job	3.56
Median, 2nd job	3.93
Difference in medians	.37

[a]Excludes "no answers."

In each of the three groups, men were more likely than women to be classified as unemployed, while nonworking women were classified as staying at home, although unemployment was particularly high (50%) among volunteer women who were noncommitters.

Posttraining Labor Force Participation and Welfare Dependency

The data we have shown up to this point suggest that while vouchering may have conferred some benefits as compared to regular training, these benefits were neither sizable nor consistent. An attempt was made to arrive at a better assessment by developing more broad-ranged measures: since training completion, was the client predominantly in the labor force, i.e., working or looking for work, or predominantly out of the labor force? One of the postulated benefits of vouchering was that it would develop the clients' knowledge of the labor market as well as his/her self-confidence, so that even if jobs were unsatisfactory or impermanent, he or she would not be discouraged and would continue to seek and find new employment.

Of course, the ultimate hoped-for outcome was independence from welfare: if vouchered clients became economically self-sufficient more often than regulars, this would be *prima facie* evidence of the value of the voucher system within the framework of the WIN mandate.

There are few differences in the labor force participation patterns of voucher committers and regulars. Roughly two-thirds of each group (64% of voucher committers, 67% of the regulars) were predominately in the labor force after training, while 17% of the former and 19% of the latter were predominately out of the labor force.[1] Smaller proportions of each group shifted in and out of the labor force or engaged predominately in other OJT or schooling (Table 47). Voucher noncommitters, on the other hand, were somewhat less likely to be predominately in the labor force (55%), noticeably more likely to shift in and out (22%), and less likely to be predominately out of the labor force (11%).

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[1]See Appendix B for technical details concerning definitions of levels of labor force participation and welfare dependency.

TABLE 47

SUMMARY TABLE: POST-OJT LABOR FORCE BEHAVIOR PATTERNS AND WELFARE DEPENDENCY; VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS (In Percentages and Ratio Points)[a]

	Voucher Committers	Regulars
Post-OJT Labor Force Behavior Patterns		
Predominantly in the labor force.	64	67
Shifting in and out of the labor force. . . .	8	4
Predominantly out of the labor force.	17	19
Predominantly in other training or schooling	11	11
Total %	100	101
(N)	(47)	(54)
Post-OJT Welfare Dependency		
Percent never on welfare.	49	43
(N)	(47)	(54)
Mean welfare dependency ratio	1.05	1.01
(N)	(24)	(31)
Mean welfare demand ratio	0.53	0.58
(N)	(47)	(54)

[a]See Appendix 2 for full technical information about assignment to labor force behavior and welfare dependency categories. The mean welfare dependency ratio reflects the extent to which recipients received full or partial grants (the latter indicating partial independence). Thus, during the time span under observation, the lower the ratio, the higher the degree of partial independence. The mean welfare demand ratio reflects the mean demand for welfare by all members of this group.

Voucher committers and regulars were quite similar in the extent to which they became independent of welfare support during the posttraining period; 49% of the former and 43% of the latter did so. Among those who were on welfare at one time or another after training, voucher committers received slightly higher levels of support than regulars. And the overall demands which these levels of support put on the welfare system were also quite similar, although the voucher committing group created slightly less demand than did the regular group.

Patterns of labor force participation and welfare dependency and their interaction are best understood through an examination of the regression analysis presented in Table 48 and the data shown in Table 49. Quite clearly, the most important single factor which contributed to longer run labor force participation on a consistent basis by voucher recipients and regulars alike was whether they worked immediately after leaving training. This finding held independent of demographic characteristics, characteristics of the job search experience (Table 48, column A), and training completion (column B). Being out of the labor force during the first month after leaving training very markedly depressed the likelihood of being consistently in the labor force over the longer run. Further, this effect of immediate posttraining activity remained essentially unchanged when measured net of program status, education and several characteristics of the training received (column C). This factor was not as influential, although still statistically significant, among the voucher noncommitters as it was for the other groups.

Beyond this consistently strong effect, vouchered mandatory women were shown to be significantly more likely to be predominately in the labor force than the men in that group. Also, being younger and having flexibility in seeking an OJT occupation had a significant positive effect for voucher committers. Feeling that the WIN staff did not provide enough information had a strong negative influence for committers.

Among voucher noncommitters, having more than a high school education apparently contributed to a noticeable extent to the likelihood of being predominately in the labor force over the longer run.

TABLE 4A

REGRESSION ESTIMATES OF INFLUENCES ON PREDOMINANT LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION: VOUCHER COMMITTERS (VC), REGULARS (R), AND VOUCHER NONCOMMITTERS (VN)
(In Percentage Points of Deviation from the Grand Mean)[a]

	(N)			Column A: Predominantly in the Labor Force			Column B: Predominantly in the Labor Force		Column C: Predominantly in the Labor Force	
	VC	R	VN	VC	R	VN	VC	R	VC	R
GRAND MEAN (% Predominantly in Labor Force)				64	67	56	64	67	64	67
Sex/Program Status										
Men	(24)	(72)	(45)	-17	-03	04	-15	-03	-03	-07
Women, mandatory WIN participant	(14)	(13)	(36)	30	03	-06	19	05	08	10
Women, volunteer WIN participant	(9)	(9)	(14)	*	*	+00	*	*	*	*
Education										
Less than 12 years	(12)	(22)	(23)	-01	-06	-09	-06	-06	-00	-02
12 years	(24)	(36)	(48)	01	05	-07	02	03	02	01
More than 12 years	(11)	(6)	(24)	-02	*	22	03	*	-03	*
Age										
16 to 24 years	(13)	(23)	(26)	15	-02	08	18	-01		
25 to 34 years	(22)	(20)	(40)	-13	08	-03	-15	08		
35 or more years	(12)	(11)	(29)	07	-11	-03	08	-12		
Number of Dependents										
0 to 2 dependents	(20)	(38)	(34)	-06	07	07	-09	07		
3 or more dependents	(27)	(16)	(61)	04	-17	-04	07	-17		
Occupational Commitment										
Looked for OJT in any occupation	(18)	(23)	(39)	12	-11	09	16	-12		
Looked for OJT in particular occupation	(29)	(31)	(56)	-08	08	-06	-10	09		
Experienced Autonomy										
High autonomy	(17)	(9)	(20)	-11	*	09	-11	*		
Moderate or low autonomy	(30)	(45)	(75)	06	-02	-02	06	-02		
Adequacy of Staff Information										
Needed more information	(14)	(22)	(45)	-18	12	-02	-22	13		
Did not need more information	(33)	(32)	(50)	08	-08	02	10	-09		
Training Occupation										
Professional, Technical, Administrative	(7)	(-)	NA						*	b
Clerical	(13)	(10)	NA						14	-15
Foreman, Craftsmen, Operatives	(17)	(33)	NA						-10	02
Service	(10)	(11)	NA						12	07
Size of Employer										
1 to 10 employees	(23)	(28)	NA						08	-04
11 to 50 employees	(13)	(14)	NA						-19	08
51 or more employees	(11)	(12)	NA						07	-01
Length of Training										
1 to 26 weeks	(27)	(43)	NA						-05	05
27 or more weeks	(20)	(11)	NA						07	-19
Training Completion										
Completed training	(20)	(30)	NA				15	05	06	-01
Dropped out of training	(27)	(24)	NA				-11	-08	-05	01
Immediate Posttraining Activity (1st month)[a]										
Working	(29)	(29)	(61)	17	20	13	12	16	13	20
Looking for work	(10)	(14)	(-)	03	02	10	12	05	01	02
Out of the Labor Force	(8)	(11)	(28)	*	-55	-29	*	-49	*	-55
				.49	.35	.31	.53	.59	.41	.51

[a]The regression estimates in this table are based on numbers of cases which often are marginal in terms of the technical constraints imposed on Multiple Classification Analysis. While obviously unreliable values have been replaced by asterisks (*), the precise reliability of the values shown in this table is unknown. Readers are, therefore, cautioned against interpreting them as precise measures of the relative strengths of effects.

[b]No cases.

TABLE 49

PATTERNS OF WELFARE DEPENDENCE AFTER TRAINING; VOUCHER COMMITTERS, REGULARS AND VOUCHER NONCOMMITTERS
(in Percentages)

	Voucher Committers	Regulars	Voucher Noncommitters
Never on welfare following training .	49	43	12
Continuously on welfare after training.	17	19	37
Some part of posttraining period on welfare.	34	39	52
Total % (N)	100 (47)	101 (54)	101 (95)

Completing training had been the single most important influence on working during the first month after training among both voucher committers and regulars. Although training completion seems to have operated in the same direction among voucher committers with respect to longer-run labor force participation, its direct influence was very much reduced, and among regulars training completion had virtually no direct effect on longer-run labor force participation. Presumably, any appreciable effects of training completion were indirect effects mediated through first-month labor force participation.

One could hypothesize that experiences of the first posttraining job would have some influence on subsequent labor force participation. Here analysis is limited to those in each group who had obtained a job at some time after training or dropping out. From Appendix Table 8, it can be seen that, net of demographic and program participation variables; the characteristics of the first posttraining job made some difference with respect to consistent labor force participation. Furthermore, this new combination of variables does produce a significant relationship between longer-run participation and training completion for voucher clients.

As already noted, 49% of the voucher committers and 43% of the regulars were totally independent of welfare following the end of training. Continuous dependence on welfare, although much less frequent than continuous independence, was equally prevalent among the voucher committers and regulars (Table 49). But, substantial proportions of each group displayed some

sporadic pattern of welfare dependence; some remained on welfare for a period following training and then left it; some returned to welfare after an initial posttraining period of independence; and a few moved on and off the welfare rolls.

Voucher noncommitters, of course, were unlikely to be totally independent of welfare since most remained in the WIN program and were eligible for welfare support following the end of their search for vouchered OJT. In fact, a little over one-third of the noncommitters remained continuously on welfare, but about half were on welfare for only a part of the period following the end of the search for vouchered OJT.

The strongest single influence on welfare independence (Appendix Table 9) among the factors we considered was the negative effect of looking for work during the first month out of training: no doubt those who did not get jobs immediately following cessation of training remained welfare-eligible until jobs were obtained and/or eligibility for welfare support had ceased. Furthermore, it appears that immediate posttraining activities made some modest independent contribution to longer-run welfare independence. As anticipated, labor force behavior over the longer run had the greatest influence on long-run welfare independence among voucher committers and regulars, with shifting behavior or consistent nonparticipation in the labor force significantly depressing the probability of being welfare independent over the posttraining period (Appendix Table 10). As is well known from other studies (University of Michigan) low-income populations have few alternatives to welfare in the absence of employment. Those WIN participants for whom OJT (vouchered or regular) did not yield regular employment again sought help from welfare.

Our ability to assess the net contributions which various factors made to two of the principal outcome measures of this study--predominant labor force participation and independence of welfare support over the entire posttraining period--were limited by the unavoidable fragmentation of dummy variable multiple regression models. But some fairly clear findings emerged.

First, what people did immediately following their departure from OJT or from an unsuccessful search for vouchered OJT appears to have been a crucial factor in the longer-run labor force behavior. Here again is the capture effect of early posttraining activities to which we alluded

earlier. A summary of the gross data indicate quite clearly that long-run labor force behavior is related to what people do immediately after leaving a program (Table 50). Further, the regression estimates demonstrate beyond a reasonable doubt that this capture effect operates regardless of a number of other relevant variables. Although the influence existed among non-committers, it was somewhat weaker than for committers and regulars. The difference apparently lies in the importance of training completion and subsequent employment by the OJT employer as factors in working during the first month out of training.

Secondly, with respect to posttraining independence from welfare support, it was again what voucher committers and regulars did immediately after leaving training that most strongly and consistently influenced subsequent events. But it was looking for work during the first month out of training rather than being out of the labor force that tended most to depress the likelihood of being welfare independent after training. As suggested earlier, this probably reflects the fact that people who did not get jobs immediately after training usually qualified for welfare until they found employment.

By and large, the regression estimates tended to be consistent with differences noted among various demographic subgroups at the gross level. These showed that background characteristics did not explain labor force or welfare dependency outcomes. Only in the case of volunteer women among the voucher noncommitters was welfare independence an exceptionally rare event.

Finally, while training completion had a positive effect on subsequent welfare independence, job search characteristics and the OJT situation itself do not seem to have had particularly noticeable effects on labor force participation and its corollary, welfare independence. The data clearly point to the overriding influence of posttraining events, and in particular immediate posttraining placement, as those affecting successful training outcomes.

TABLE 50

POSTTRAINING LABOR FORCE BEHAVIOR PATTERNS, BY IMMEDIATE (FIRST MONTH) POSTTRAINING ACTIVITIES; VOUCHER COMMITTERS, REGULARS, AND VOUCHER NONCOMMITTERS (in Percentages)[a]

Labor Force Behavior Patterns	First Posttraining Month Activities								
	Voucher Committers			Regulars			Voucher Noncommitters		
	WKG[b]	LKG	OLF[c]	WKG[b]	LKG	OLF[c]	WKG[b]	LKG	OLF[c]
Predominantly in the labor force	90	60	25	100	86	9	78	73	21
Shifting in and out.	3	10	25	-	7	9	15	15	36
Predominantly OUT of the labor force . .	7	30	50	-	7	82	8	12	43
Total % (N)	100 (29)	100 (10)	100 (8)[d]	100 (29)	100 (14)	100 (11)	101 (40)	100 (26)	100 (28)

[a]Excludes "no answers."

[b]Includes other OJT.

[c]Includes other (nonOJT) training or schooling.

[d]Small number intentionally retained.

KEY: WKG = Working
LKG = Looking for Work
OLF = Out of the Labor Force.

CHAPTER VI

Clients' Assessments of Their OJT Experiences

This analysis of clients' experiences with the WIN voucher program would not be complete without some inputs from the clients themselves. We were especially concerned with their assessment of the usefulness of the training in their subsequent work and the reactions of voucher recipients to the vouchering idea as they experienced its application.

Those vouchered trainees were more likely than regulars to testify to the usefulness of their training in subsequent work: two-thirds of the former and half of the latter found that the OJT they had recieved was useful in their first posttraining job (Table 51).[1] Among the voucher committers, women--particularly mandatory women (89%)--were considerably more likely than men (57%) to find that their training was useful. For regular clients this difference between sexes was not observed.

By occupation, there were marked differences between voucher committers and regulars in their assessments of the usefulness of training (Table 52). It appears that voucher committers who chose and obtained training in white collar occupations were better able than similar regulars to obtain, in their view, effective training.

When asked if they would make a similar choice if faced with entering the program again, 46% of the voucher committers and 30% of the non-committers said they would again take vouchers for OJT (Table 53). However, women in both groups expressed a preference for institutional training over OJT, whether vouchered or not.

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[1] The apparent inconsistency between these data and the information shown earlier about assessment of quality of training (Chapter IV) can be attributed to the fact that the two questions were not answered by the same respondents (only the answers of those actually employed after training are shown in Table 51) and that they did not cover identical ground. The earlier question referred to training for the training occupation; the information in Table 51 deals with first job regardless of occupation.

TABLE 51

USEFULNESS OF WIN TRAINING IN RESPONDENT'S FIRST JOB AFTER TRAINING FOR VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS, BY SEX AND PROGRAM STATUS (In Percentages)[a]

	Percent who found the training useful			
	Voucher Committers		Regulars	
	%	(N)	%	(N)
All men	57	(14)	58	(24)
All women	75	(12)	56	(16)
Mandatory women	89	(9)	56	(9)
Volunteer women		[b]		[b]
All	65	(26)	58	(40)

[a]Excludes "no answers."

[b]Fewer than 9 cases.

TABLE 52

USEFULNESS OF TRAINING IN FIRST POSTTRAINING JOBS, BY FIRST POSTTRAINING JOB OCCUPATION; VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS (In Percentages)[a]

	First Posttraining Job Occupations					
	Voucher Committers			Regulars		
	White[b] Collar	Blue[c] Collar	Service	White[b] Collar	Blue[c] Collar	Service
Percent finding training useful in first posttraining jobs	86	67	50	14	68	64
(N)	(7)[d]	(9)	(10)	(7)[d]	(19)	(14)

[a]Excludes "no answers."

[b]Professional/technical/administrative and clerical.

[c]Foremen/craftsmen and operatives.

[d]Small number intentionally retained.

TABLE 53

ACTION RESPONDENTS WOULD TAKE IF JUST ENTERING WIN IN LIGHT OF THEIR RECENT EXPERIENCE, BY SEX: VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND VOUCHER NONCOMMITTERS (In Percentages)

What Client Would Do Now	Voucher Committers			Voucher Noncommitters		
	Men	Women	Both	Men	Women	Both
Take a voucher for OJT again	61	30	46	32	29	30
Get into institutional vocational training	17	57	37	41	39	40
Rely on WIN staff for OJT, immediate employment, or other	22	12	18	28	32	31
Total %	100	99	101	101	100	101
(N)	(23)	(23)	(46)	(44)	(49)	(93)

All trainees--vouchered and regular--were finally asked a broad general question to provide the opportunity for more general comments about the WIN program, so as to uncover issues which may have been missed in the interview. When asked how they would improve WIN OJT if they were high-level administrators, the actions suggested by the largest proportions of the voucher committers and noncommitters was to tighten up the program and not allow abuse of it by clients; regulars most often would seek to improve the staff placement function. These comments suggest that voucher clients observed irregularities in the handling of vouchers. These data again support our belief that clients defined the programs differently. Voucher clients saw the need for better self-discipline, which the voucher program was indeed designed to foster, while regulars sought better staff services which were supposedly emphasized by the conventional program (Table 54). Judging by the number of critical comments received, the regular program was seen in need of improvement more often than the voucher program.

TABLE 54

WAYS THEY WOULD IMPROVE WIN OJT PROGRAM MENTIONED BY THE MOST RESPONDENTS (In Percentages)[a]

Recommendations	Voucher Committers	Regulars	Voucher Noncommitters
Don't allow abuse of program by clients: self-improvement, not hand out	17	6	23
Investigate more regularly and throughly what is going on at the lower levels	13	10	7
Follow-up client after someone has received a job	13	8	13
Check on training situation to see if clients are really getting training and how they are doing	9	17	18
Have WIN staff find the jobs and really know about them before sending clients to apply	9	29	4
Start an employer awareness program about the clients and attempt to change their negative attitudes toward welfare recipients; also get employers to inform WIN about job openings	9	19	6
(N)	(46)	(52)	(90)

[a]Percents of respondents who mentioned items indicated. Underlined values indicate the highest three proportions for each group.

Table 55 presents a somewhat different view of the same data when all possible answers are classified into six broad categories. Under this categorization, both voucher committers and noncommitters sought most often to improve WIN staff support, with better administrative control in second place. The effect of incorporating these suggested improvements might in fact lead to a loss of client autonomy. The data suggest that for these clients, improved support services, administrative and staff intervention with employers are more salient than autonomy-related issues.

When voucher clients were asked about program restrictions, majorities of both voucher groups felt the length of training was about right (Table 56). The length of the search period was felt to be about right by committers and too short by noncommitters. But, even among those who were successful in finding vouchered OJT, one-third felt that the period was too short. In any future program of this type, consideration should probably be given to lengthening the training search period. Small majorities of both groups agreed that no restrictions should be placed on occupations allowed under WIN, also.

If there is one general conclusion to be drawn from these rather disparate and limited data, it is that all groups of clients had accepted and internalized the norms of the respective programs in which they had enrolled. Vouchered clients accepted the notion of autonomy and were highly critical of those--clients or staff members--who in their view failed to conform to the program's expectations for integrity and self-management. Regular clients were apparently satisfied to function in a setting where they were largely dependent on staff decisions and staff services provided that these were effectively performed. Obviously, given the low salience of program mode for the clients themselves, we must look to objective data, rather than client assessments, to judge the respective advantages and drawbacks of the two systems.

TABLE 55

WAYS IN WHICH RESPONDENTS WOULD IMPROVE THE WIN OJT PROGRAM; VOUCHER COMMITTERS, REGULARS, AND VOUCHER NONCOMMITTERS (In Percentages)[a]

Recommendations	Voucher Committers	Regulars	Voucher Noncommitters
Improve WIN Staff Support	31	17	33
Allocate more staff to deal with clients; provide more in-depth counseling, especially for those who need to build up self-confidence; provide special support and encouragement/provide more intensive job counseling, job search training, and ascertiveness training/provide more accurate information on supportive services, particularly health care/follow-up on client after he or she has obtained a job.			
Improve Administrative Control	27	12	25
Don't allow abuse of program by clients; self-improvement, not hand-out/investigate more regularly and thoroughly what is going on at lower levels.			
Work on Employers	16	29	19
Start an employer awareness program about clients and attempt to change their negative attitudes toward welfare recipients and get employers to inform WIN about job openings/check on the training situation to see if clients are really getting trained and how they are doing.			
Extend Flexibility and Client Autonomy	8	12	11
Introduce more flexibility into the programs; e.g., extend length of training in special cases, allow more money for tools and equipment where necessary, allow for other than just welfare clients/allow clients to have more input into what they want.			
Reduce Autonomy	8	23	4
Have WIN staff find the jobs and really know about them before sending a client to apply.			
Other	10	8	7
Total	100	101	99
(N=total mentions of all items)	(51)	(66)	(109)

[a]Percents of total number of mentions of all items, excluding "no answers."

TABLE 56

OPINIONS ABOUT VOUCHER PROGRAM RESTRICTIONS: VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND VOUCHER NONCOMMITTERS
(In Percentages)[a]

Program Restrictions	Voucher Committers	Voucher Noncommitters
Length of Training:		
About right	55	60
Too short	21	23
Too long	17	8
It depends on the occupation	6	11
Total %	99	101
(N)	(47)	(93)
Length of Search Period:		
About right	64	33
Too short	36	66
Too long	-	1
Total %	100	100
(N)	(47)	(91)
Occupational Restrictions:		
Occupations should be restricted	45	44
Any occupation should be allowed	55	56
Total %	100	100
(N)	(47)	(93)

[a]Excludes "no answers."

CHAPTER VII

Conclusion

The Portland OJT voucher demonstration sought primarily to test the feasibility of vouchering on-the-job training; in the process it also developed some information on the effectiveness of the voucher mode as compared to WIN's traditional service-delivery mode for OJT. In this final section of the report, we will try to deal with these two issues separately, discussing first the issue of feasibility and second the issue of directiveness.

Feasibility

There are a number of ways in which the feasibility of a project of this type can be assessed:

- Was the voucher concept attractive to clients? Did they select the voucher mode if alternative ways of obtaining OJT were available to them? Did they understand the voucher system?

- Was the voucher concept acceptable to staff? Was the staff able to provide the kinds of support services on which the functioning of the project was predicated?

- Was the voucher concept acceptable to employers? Could training agreements be negotiated as stipulated in the guidelines for the demonstration? Did the project actually result in the conclusion of training agreements based on the use of vouchers?

The answer to these questions is generally a conditional yes--conditional because the conditions under which the test was conducted were imperfect ones. Throughout the period of the voucher project, clients did not always have an unconstrained choice between regular and vouchered training: at times vouchered training was the only available OJT option, and at other times clients were under the misapprehension that this was the case. From the interview material at hand, it is clear that a number of clients liked the voucher concept and had no trouble understanding the voucher system and using the voucher. But it is also clear that when the system was one of several available alternatives; those who selected the voucher were generally older, better educated, and perhaps most important, had a

specific occupational goal when they first entered the WIN program. Although WIN clients without these characteristics also selected vouchers and handled them successfully, the data suggest that such clients might need more assistance (especially in defining their occupational goals) than they received in the Portland demonstration.

Under the voucher concept, the role of the WIN staff was redefined. The voucher experiment was premised on the idea that clients could seek out their own employers and would be willing to assume more autonomy in the decision-making process. The data show that voucher clients, indeed, experienced more autonomy than regular clients.

Many staff members found the voucher concept an exciting one and operated successfully within the project guidelines; others did not. Clearly, a special voucher team--which consisted of counselors specially recruited for this task--worked best, in both terms of granting clients autonomy and in furnishing the kinds of information and support which staff was to provide under the project design. However, a demonstration of the type we conducted in Portland is not a good test of staff willingness or ability to operate an innovative program, since the staff knows that the demonstration is a short-term and partial innovation. The "regular" procedures continue to be applicable to many of their clients during the demonstration and will again apply to all clients as soon as the demonstration is over. It would also be erroneous to assume that under the regular program, clients have no opportunity to express and implement occupational preferences. Our data showed that even under the regular WIN OJT program, many Portland participants felt that the program offered them considerable opportunity to participate in making decisions about occupations and employers. From what we have seen in Portland, we suspect that if a voucher system were being introduced as the prevailing service mode, all but a handful of staff members would have no problem in adapting themselves to the system.

As far as employers go, the findings are less clear. From a strict feasibility perspective, we can say that it was indeed possible to interest employers and to conclude training agreements since 20% of the voucher holders succeeded in locating an OJT position. But at the same time, this figure represents a very low commitment rate, and one may well question the "feasibility" of a program under which 80% of the participants are unable to meet

the initial goal of finding a training vendor. Clearly, the search period built into the program was too short. But furthermore, before dismissing the voucher experiment as "unfeasible" because of this low commitment rate, it should be said that there is really no way in which this result can be compared with the success of alternate models for providing on-the-job training for similarly situated OJT candidates.

Under the regular OJT program, job developers usually start out by developing OJT slots and, having in hand a guaranteed number of training positions, proceed to select from among WIN clients those interested in and suitable for the existing positions. Occasionally, a job developer will also seek to locate a position for a client who has a specialized interest or qualification. But job developers are not faced with the requirement of finding during a 6-week period OJT positions for a large number of WIN clients with specific occupational preferences for which they may or may not be qualified. Whether job developers, if given such an assignment, would succeed in locating positions for more than 20% of the group is an open question.[1]

Other data developed in the course of the voucher study through interviews with employers suggest, however, that some employers, and especially large firms, prefer to recruit through the intermediary of the WIN office, which furnishes an applicant-screening service. Although the data from the employer study and from the participant interviews are by no means unanimous, we conclude that as a rule employers were not enthusiastic about the system. Certainly the model postulated by some of the more optimistic voucher proponents was not borne out by our study: we have no evidence that the voucher was a powerful bargaining tool for the OJT seeker, with employers competing for the privilege of "selling" subsidized training to voucher holders. Rather, the model we saw was of job-seekers competing for scarce jobs, with the majority unable to find an employer willing to accept the voucher in spite of voucher holders' energetic efforts. It is true that the job market was a tight one at the time of the demonstration. But even allowing for this factor, it seems clear that issuing a voucher does not guarantee a training position for the client.

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[1] It is clear that WIN clients found it much easier to commit vouchers for institutional training than for OJT, but institutional voucher recipients were dealing with vendors whose business was offering vocational training services and who were generally eager for students. Fully 88% of all institutional voucher recipients committed their vouchers, many of them to community colleges with open admission programs.

Effectiveness

Over and above the issue of feasibility, the research presented in this report also sought to address the issue of effectiveness. Was the voucher system more or less effective than the regular system in locating high-quality training positions? Were trainees more likely to complete training? And finally, were voucher holders more or less successful than comparable groups of regular clients in moving toward self-sufficiency through employment? By and large, our data suggest that there was a slight outcome advantage for voucher holders as compared to regular clients who were in training during roughly the same period, but the differences are not very marked. Furthermore, relative effectiveness of the two models differs for various client groups.

Training Experience

One of the assumptions underlying the voucher model for OJT was that vouchering might lead to better training situations: the voucher holder could shop around and select the most advantageous training vendors. Actually, we have seen that WIN clients found themselves very much in the role of job-seekers trying to find employment in a tight job market, rather than holders of a valuable voucher for which many employers would compete. However, they derived some advantages from the voucher despite the difficulties encountered in locating willing employers. For those who committed the voucher, there was some broadening of the range of training occupations, as a few voucher committers moved into higher-level fields (professional, technical and managerial) where none of the regular OJT clients had received training. More women moved into the clerical field, and there was a marked upgrading of the levels of clerical OJT positions. This shift away from blue-collar orientations of the voucher clients was, however, marked by adherence to conventional assumptions about appropriate occupational sex roles.

By and large, voucher committers received higher hourly pay rates than regulars during their periods in training. Majorities of both the committers and regulars indicated satisfaction with their training in a number of ways, with voucher committers perhaps a bit more likely than regulars to feel that their employers had at least some interest in seeing that they were properly trained. In the aggregate, the differences between the two groups were not very large and not too much should be made of them. At the same

time, both the voucher committers and regulars contradicted their generally optimistic appraisal of training when three-quarters in each group said that they felt their employers viewed OJT not so much as training, but as a way to get low-cost labor. These and other comments suggest that while many experts look at OJT programs chiefly as a mechanism for subsequent job placement, clients themselves apparently take the training aspect of these positions very seriously, hoping to acquire new skills and occupational qualifications, rather than just a job. In this respect, they found most OJT positions disappointing.

Training Completion

Contrary to the hypothesis that vouchering, by increasing the client's commitment through free occupational choice and choice of OJT position, would lead to higher completion rates, it was found that regular trainees completed training more often (56% of the comparison group, as against 43% of the vouchering committers). However, the reasons for noncompletion are rather complex, since in some cases noncompletion was followed by full-time work or enrollment in a different training program. What seems clear is that very long training programs (those in excess of 26 weeks) were least likely to be completed, and that women with large families were unlikely to complete training either under the voucher option or when placed in regular OJT positions.

Labor Force Experience

Nearly three-quarters of the voucher committers and regulars were in the labor force immediately after leaving training, with voucher committers slightly more likely to be working (55% vs. 48%).

Although there was evidence of scattered influences contributing independently to the likelihood of working during the first month after training, these did not really fit together in a coherent explanatory pattern.

The one factor that consistently made a substantial net contribution to the probability of working during the first month among both committers and regulars was completing training. The importance of this factor with respect to early employment resulted largely from the high proportion of training completers who obtained post-OJT employment with their OJT employers--90% of the voucher committers and 72% of the regulars who completed training remained with their OJT employers. These constituted substantial proportions

of all the voucher committers and regulars who were working during the first posttraining month.

Although only about half of the voucher committers and regulars were working during their first month out of training, about 8 out of 10 in each group worked at some time after training. Most of these held only one job during the posttraining period. Most of those who did work at some time after training obtained their jobs within 2 or 3 months of leaving training. While majorities of both groups said that they had found their first posttraining jobs themselves, regulars were considerably more likely to have maintained their dependence on WIN to help them find their first posttraining job.

Much of the broadening of the occupational range noted among voucher committers with respect to their training occupations disappeared in the actual jobs which they got after training. But, in the end, two-thirds of each group held first posttraining jobs in occupations consistent with their OJT positions.

By and large, voucher committers received higher hourly pay rates in their first posttraining jobs than did regulars. The general assumption that men receive higher pay rates than women did not hold uniformly in either group. While men received higher pay than women as a group, mandatory women by themselves were almost on a par with them. In terms of monthly pay, however, voucher committers and regulars were almost equal and, in both groups, men consistently received more pay than women.

At the time of interview, voucher committers were less likely than regulars to be working (57% vs. 65%), and less likely to be in the labor force (74% and 87%, respectively). These levels of labor force participation and proportions working translate into rather high unemployment rates--about one-quarter in each group. In each of the groups, men were more likely to be unemployed than women, with the unemployment rate for regular men rising to 34%.

Post-OJT Labor Force Behavior Patterns

The post-OJT labor force behavior patterns of voucher committers and regulars were very similar, with about two-thirds of each respondent group predominately in the labor force and slightly less than one-fifth predominately out of the labor force.

Although scattered demographic, WIN program and OJT characteristics apparently had substantial net influences on the probability of being predominately in the labor force during the overall posttraining period, the capture effect of early, posttraining labor force participation was very clearly the most important factor contributing to longer-run labor force participation.

Post-OJT Welfare Dependency

Slightly under half of the committers (49%) and regulars (43%) were totally independent of welfare support following termination of OJT. However, differences between the two groups in the mean levels of support received by those who were on welfare at some time after training as well as in the overall demands placed on the welfare system were very small.

Most often, return to welfare after having been off welfare resulted from job termination, and this was usually due to having been fired or laid off, for both respondent groups.

The strongest single predictor of welfare dependence at some time following training in both groups was having been in the labor force but not working (i.e., looking for work) during the first month after leaving training. But this was probably due to the fact that former trainees who had not yet found a posttraining job were being retained on the welfare rolls. In a larger context, it appears that, while being out of the labor force during the first month after leaving training may have had some net, direct influence on longer-run welfare dependence, being predominately out of the labor force during the overall posttraining period probably was a more impor- factor contributing to long-run welfare dependence.

Is Vouchering the Better Way?

While the Portland program demonstrated the feasibility of vouchering OJT, it did not clearly establish that vouchering is a more effective way of providing OJT for WIN clients. The voucher did not help the clients secure higher quality training, although it helped some of them to gain access to better-paying and more desirable occupations. But voucher holders were no more likely than regular clients to complete training, and for those who did not, periods of unemployment and welfare dependency followed the training period, regardless of the training mode. The experience to date suggests

that while some aspects of the voucher experience may be positive ones for clients, this is not enough to overcome the substantial obstacles which WIN clients encounter in a tight job market and in reconciling work and family responsibilities.

But while stopping short of recommending a voucher program as a substitute for current delivery modes, we feel that there is room for vouchering in WIN, and that some aspects of a voucher program could be more widely adopted in WIN.

(1) A voucher option should probably be available in all programs for a small number of clients, usually older and well-educated clients with prior work experience and concrete occupational goals.

(2) Clients benefit from taking a more active role in occupational decision-making and in taking at least initial responsibility for canvassing the job market and exploring training positions. We were greatly impressed by our data about job search efforts, and became convinced that encouraging clients to engage in an active job search (with WIN providing information, but not setting up interviews) is very helpful for some clients and should be used more widely than is presently the case. An active job search means that clients learn to locate more sources of information, make more direct contacts with employers, and may find jobs (as well as training positions) on their own. It also means--perhaps most importantly--that they will be more efficient job-seekers at later times in their lives.

(3) At the same time, it is clear that many clients will be unable to find jobs on their own, and that many employers prefer to deal through the intermediary of a job counselor. After the client has done some searching and exploring on his own, he or she should have access to the facilitation network which WIN (or other employment specialists) have developed.

(4) The availability of a voucher option, and emphasis on client-initiated job-searching and OJT-searching in the WIN program requires constant development and updating of occupational information--not just job bank listings, but other occupational and labor market information as well--on the part of WIN. It also sensitizes WIN staff to notions of client autonomy and the benefits of client decision-making, especially in the area of occupational choice. Thus, WIN services for all clients are likely to benefit from the resources and philosophy which the availability of the voucher option would bring to the program.

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APPENDIX A
TABLES

APPENDIX TABLE I

REGRESSION ESTIMATES OF THE INFLUENCES ON THE COMMITMENT STATUS OF THE VOUCHER CLIENTS' VOUCHERS

(In Percentage Points of Deviation from the Grand Mean)

	(N)	Voucher Committed
GRAND MEAN	(142)	33
Sex/Program Status		
Volunteer female	(23)	12
Mandatory female	(50)	2
Male	(69)	- 6
Education		
Less than 12 years	(35)	- 4
12 years	(72)	3
More than 12 years	(35)	- 2
Age		
16-24 years	(39)	6
25-34 years	(62)	0
35 years and older	(41)	- 6
Number of Dependents		
1	(14)	- 1
2	(43)	8
3	(42)	- 4
4 or more	(43)	- 4
Race		
White	(120)	0*
Non-white	(22)	1
Months Since Last Job Prior to WIN		
Fewer than 3 months	(61)	12
3-9 months	(42)	-15
Over 9 months	(39)	- 2
Best Sources of Information on Employers		
WIN staff	(42)	13
Employers	(32)	- 3
Others	(68)	- 7
Team Membership		
High risk team	(52)	13
Low risk team	(47)	- 6
Voucher team	(43)	- 9
Occupation Sought		
Sub-professional/technical/administrative	(23)	- 1
Clerical	(33)	- 3
Crafts/operatives	(50)	7
Service	(16)	- 2
No particular occupation sought	(20)	-10
WIN Staff Explained the Voucher		
Yes	(107)	4
No	(35)	-11
WIN Staff Withheld Needed Information		
No	(104)	5
Yes	(38)	-14
Who Chose Training vs. Placement		
Client	(67)	3
WIN staff	(75)	- 2
Who Chose the Training Occupation		
Client	(91)	2
WIN staff	(51)	- 3
Who Chose Which Employers to Contact		
Client	(71)	4
WIN staff	(71)	- 4
R^2		.31

*Deviated from group proportion by less than one-half of 1% in a negative direction.

APPENDIX TABLE 2

VOUCHER CLIENTS[a] EXPERIENCES WITH PROSPECTIVE EMPLOYERS DURING THE JOB SEARCH
(IN PERCENTAGES)

Job Search Experience	All Voucher Holders (N)	Proportion of All Voucher Holders Who Succeeded in Committing Vouchers (%)	Proportion of Voucher Holders Who Committed Vouchers Within Each "Frequency of Experience" Group		
			Almost Always	Occasionally	Never
Employer Prejudice:					
The employer told you he didn't want to have any dealings with a government agency	(137)	32	17 (12)	29 (35)	36 (90)
Job Market:					
The employer told you there were no openings at that time	(137)	32	25 (79)	22 (32)	65 (26)
Interest/Knowledge of Voucher:					
The employer expressed lots of interest in the voucher	(137)	32	54 (37)	28 (69)	16 (31)
The employer told you to come back at a later date	(137)	32	29 (31)	27 (68)	45 (38)
The employer seemed confused by the idea of vouchers	(137)	32	30 (33)	44 (50)	22 (54)
The employer had a lot of questions about the voucher that you could not answer	(137)	32	38 (21)	36 (31)	29 (85)

[a]Excludes those voucher clients who had OJT arranged before they received the voucher.

APPENDIX TABLE 3

A. COMPARISON OF WEEKS OF TRAINING OF VOUCHER AND REGULARS BY THEIR TRAINING OCCUPATION AND SEX
(In Mean Number of Weeks)

	All		Men		Women	
	Voucher	Regular	Voucher	Regular	Voucher	Regular
Sub-professional/technical	22.5 (2)	-	-	-	22.5 (2)	-
Managerial/administrative/technical	30.8 (5)	-	30.8 (5)	-	-	-
High clerical	28.4 (9)	18.5 (2)	-	-	28.4 (9)	18.5 (2)
Lower clerical	29.5 (4)	21.5 (8)	40.0 (1)	23.0 (2)	26.0 (3)	21.0 (6)
Foremen and craftsmen	31.5 (6)	24.9 (8)	34.4 (5)	19.3 (6)	17.0 (1)	36.0 (3)
Operatives	31.4 (11)	23.4 (24)	33.0 (9)	23.4 (19)	24.0 (2)	23.4 (5)
Service	29.9 (10)	21.0 (11)	37.5 (4)	19.6 (5)	24.8 (6)	21.0 (6)
Total (N)	(47)	(53)	(24)	(32)	(23)	(22)

B. COMPARISON OF STARTING MEAN HOURLY WAGE RATE OF THE VOUCHER AND REGULAR CLIENTS BY THEIR TRAINING OCCUPATION
(In Dollars and Cents)

Sub-professional/technical	3.85 (2)	-	-	-	3.85 (2)	-
Managerial/administrative/proprietary	4.34 (5)	-	4.34 (5)	-	-	-
High clerical	3.32 (9)	3.37 (2)	-	-	3.32 (9)	3.37 (2)
Low clerical	3.59 (4)	2.74 (8)	6.00 (1)	6.00 (2)	2.78 (3)	2.66 (6)
Foremen & craftsworkers	4.13 (6)	3.09 (8)	4.35 (5)	3.22 (6)	3.03 (1)	2.83 (3)
Operatives	3.72 (11)	3.86 (24)	3.84 (9)	3.97 (19)	3.17 (2)	3.42 (5)
Service	2.98 (10)	2.99 (11)	3.24 (4)	3.31 (5)	2.80 (6)	2.72 (6)
Total (N)	(47)	(53)	(24)	(32)	(23)	(22)

C. COMPARISON OF THE MEAN COST OF TRAINING OF THE VOUCHER AND REGULAR CLIENTS BY TRAINING OCCUPATION AND SEX
(In Dollars)

Sub-professional/technical	1742 (2)	- (-)	- (-)	- (-)	1742 (2)	- (-)
Managerial/administrative/proprietary	2850 (5)	- (-)	2850 (5)	- (-)	- (-)	- (-)
High clerical	1908 (9)	1266 (2)	- (-)	- (-)	1908 (7)	1266 (2)
Low clerical	1448 (3)	1180 (8)	1800 (1)	1380 (2)	1448 (3)	1113 (6)
Foremen & craftsworkers	2591 (6)	2331 (8)	2903 (5)	1242 (5)	1030 (1)	2073 (3)
Operatives	2235 (11)	1797 (24)	2576 (9)	1851 (19)	703 (2)	1592 (5)
Service	1837 (10)	1172 (11)	2519 (4)	1259 (5)	1382 (6)	1100 (6)
Total (N)	(46)	(53)	(24)	(31)	(23)	(22)
Mean: All	2125	1518	2696 (23)	1627	1553	1363
White-Collar	2105 (19)	1197 (10)	2850 (5)	1380 (2)	1706 (14)	1151 (8)
Blue-Collar	2167 (27)	1592 (43)	2654 (18)	1644 (29)	1192 (9)	1484 (14)

APPENDIX TABLE 4

PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED IN OJT, VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS
(In Percentages)[a]

Problems	Percent Encountering Problem	
	Voucher Committers	Regulars
Problems Relating to Quality of Training		
Employer had trainee working in something different than promised. .	38	25
(N)	(47)	(53)
Employer didn't really train at all, but just had trainee doing simple, unskilled tasks.	21	28
(N)	(47)	(54)
No way of checking to see if employee learned the trade/trainee could be certified without acquiring skills .	4	-
(N)	(46)	(53
Problems Relating to Pay		
Employer paid employee less than promised	6	6
(N)	(47)	(54)
No raises or overtime/salary problems.	11	6
(N)	(46)	(53)
Miscellaneous Other Problems		
Employer expected trainee to do too much work.	6	-
(N)	(46)	(53)
Training program was too long.	2	-
(N)	(46)	(53)
Employer did not want other employers to know about OJT	2	-
(N)	(46)	(53)
Other (unspecified) problems	9	15
(N)	(46)	(53)

[a]Excludes no answers.

APPENDIX TABLE 5

IMMEDIATE (FIRST MONTH) POSTTRAINING ACTIVITIES, BY EVALUATIONS OF TRAINING, VOUCHER COMMITTERS AND REGULARS
(In Percentages)

Evaluations	Voucher Committers						Regulars					
	WKG.	OJT.	LKG.	OLF.	Total	(N)	WKG.	OJT.	LKG.	OLF.	Total	(N)
Was Training in Occupation Really Wanted?												
Really wanted	61	3	23	13	100	(31)	59	4	30	7	100	(27)
Not really wanted	44	12	19	25	100	(16)	38	8	23	31	100	(26)
Quality of Trainers												
Very good trainers	67	-	19	14	100	(21)	63	5	10	21	99	(19)
Pretty good trainers	50	7	29	14	100	(14)	21	7	50	21	99	(14)
Poor trainers	42	17	17	25	101	(12)	47	5	26	21	99	(19)
Employer's Interest in Training												
Really interested	67	4	17	12	100	(24)	65	4	9	22	100	(23)
Somewhat interested	40	7	27	27	101	(15)	31	6	44	19	100	(16)
Not interested	50	12	25	12	99	(8)	40	7	33	20	100	(15)
Satisfaction With OJT Pay												
Satisfied	56	-	26	18	100	(27)	49	3	31	17	100	(35)
Not satisfied	55	15	15	15	100	(20)	47	11	16	26	100	(19)
Satisfaction With Training												
Satisfied (very or fairly)	61	3	21	15	100	(33)	53	6	25	16	100	(32)
Not satisfied (very or at all)	43	14	21	21	99	(14)	38	5	29	29	101	(21)
All	55	6	21	17	99	(47)	48	6	26	20	100	(54)

APPENDIX TABLE 6

IMMEDIATE (FIRST MONTH) POSTTRAINING ACTIVITIES, BY SELECTED JOB SEARCH CHARACTERISTICS
(In Percentages)

Job Search Characteristics	Voucher Committers						Regulars						Voucher Noncommitters[a]					
	WKG.	OJT.	LKG.	OLF.	Total	(N)	WKG.	OJT.	LKG.	OLF.	Total	(N)	WKG.	OJT.	LKG.	OLF.	Total	(N)
Occupational Commitment																		
Looked for OJT in any training occupation. . .	56	-	22	22	100	(18)	39	4	26	30	99	(23)	34	13	34	18	99	(38)
Looked for OJT in particular training occupation	55	10	21	14	100	(29)	55	6	26	13	100	(31)	31	7	24	37	99	(54)
Experienced Autonomy																		
High Autonomy.	65	6	18	12	101	(17)	44	11	22	22	99	(9)	25	-	35	40	100	(20)
Moderate Autonomy.	50	8	25	17	100	(24)	67	5	24	5	101	(21)	36	10	23	31	100	(61)
Low Autonomy	-	-	-	-	-	b	33	4	29	33	99	(24)	31	23	38	8	100	(13)
Adequacy of Staff Information																		
Needed more information. .	57	-	36	7	100	(14)	45	-	36	18	99	(22)	38	4	27	31	100	(45)
Did not need more information.	55	9	15	21	100	(33)	50	9	19	22	100	(32)	29	15	29	27	100	(48)
All.	55	6	22	17	100	(47)	48	6	26	20	100	(54)	33	10	28	30	101	(94)

[a]Excludes no answers.

[b]Less than 9 cases.

Key to Column Headings:

WKG = Working during first posttraining month.

OJT = In OJT other than first OJT during first posttraining month.

LKG = Looking for work during first posttraining month.

OLF = Out of the labor force during first posttraining month.

APPENDIX TABLE 7

HOURS PER WEEK WORKED IN FIRST POSTTRAINING JOBS, BY SEX/PROGRAM STATUS; VOUCHER COMMITTERS, REGULARS AND VOUCHER NONCOMMITTERS
(In Percentages and Mean Hours per Weeks)[a]

	Less Than Full-Time	Full-Time[c]	More Than Full-Time	Total	(N)	Mean Hours Per Week[d]
Voucher Committers						
Men	-	88	12	100	(16)	36.3
All women	18	76	6	100	(17)	33.2
Women, mandatory WIN participants	8	83	8	99	(12)	35.0
Women, volunteer WIN participants					(5)	29.0
All	9	82	9	100	(33)	34.7
Regulars						
Men	-	83	17	100	(24)	37.9
All women	6	76	18	100	(17)	37.4
Women, mandatory WIN participants	10	70	20	100	(10)	36.0
Women, volunteer WIN participants					(7)	39.4
All	2	80	17	99	(41)	37.7
Voucher Noncommitters						
Men	6	80	14	100	(35)	36.4
All women[b]	19	75	6	100	(32)	32.2
Women, mandatory WIN participants	18	77	5	100	(22)	31.9
Women, volunteer WIN participants					(8)	35.0
All[b]	12	78	10	100	(67)	34.4

[a]Excludes "no answers."

[b]Includes 2 additional women whose program status is unknown.

[c]Full-time = 31 to 40 hours per week.

[d]Means were computed from grouped data using the midpoint of the range as the class mark for each category. The class mark for full-time was 35.0 hours. For the open category, "61 or more hours," 65 hours was used as an arbitrary class mark; there were only 2 voucher noncommitters and one regular in that category. Because of the manner of computing mean hours worked per week, these data are best used as relative rather than absolute measures.

APPENDIX TABLE B

REGRESSION ESTIMATES OF INFLUENCES ON PREDOMINANT LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION: VOUCHER COMMITTERS (VC), REGULARS (R), AND VOUCHER NONCOMMITTERS WHO WORKED AT SOME TIME AFTER TRAINING
(In Percentage Points of Deviation from the Grand Mean)[a]

	(N)			Column A: Predominantly in the Labor Force			Column B: Predominantly in the Labor Force			Column C: Predominantly in the Labor Force	
	VC	R	VN	VC	R	VN	VC	R	VN	VC	R
GRAND MEAN (% Predominantly in Labor Force)				70	75	66	70	75	66	70	75
Sex/Program Status											
Men	(20)	(26)	(30)	-13	-04	03	-12	-07	-05	-02	-07
Women, mandatory WIN participant	(14)	(10)	(27)	13	21	-05	13	09	06	06	14
Women, volunteer WIN participant	(6)	(8)	(8)	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Education											
Less than 12 years	(11)	(21)	(14)	-11	-20	-10	-17	-16	-13	-27	-14
12 years	(21)	(18)	(37)	-01	19	-08	01	14	-07	04	08
More than 12 years	(8)	(5)	(22)	*	*	21	*	*	19	*	*
Age											
16 to 24 years	(11)	(19)	(17)	05	08	10					
25 to 34 years	(18)	(16)	(33)	-13	09	-05					
35 or more years	(11)	(9)	(23)	16	*	-00					
Number of Dependents											
0 to 2 dependents	(17)	(32)	(26)	01	06	07					
3 or more dependents	(23)	(12)	(47)	-00	-15	-04					
Occupational Commitment											
Looked for OJT in any occupation	(14)	(15)	(33)	13	-13	08	08	-06	08	14	-12
Looked for OJT in particular occupation	(26)	(29)	(40)	-07	07	-06	-04	03	-06	-07	06
Supervised Autonomy											
High autonomy	(14)	(6)	(16)	-06	*	03	-08	*	01	*	01
Moderate or low autonomy	(26)	(38)	(57)	03	02	-01	04	-01	+00	06	-00
Adequacy of Staff Information											
Needed more information	(11)	(16)	(34)	-14	12	02	-15	22	05	-23	22
Did not need more information	(29)	(38)	(39)	05	-07	-02	06	-12	-05	09	-12
Training Completion											
Completed training	(19)	(28)	NA							22	12
Dropped out of training	(21)	(16)	NA							-30	-21
1st Posttraining Job Occupation											
White collar[b]	(10)	(10)	(22)				-13	-21	-10	-18	-21
Foremen, Craftsmen, Operatives	(15)	(30)	(28)				-03	12	02	-09	13
Service	(15)	(14)	(23)				11	-02	07	21	-04
1st Posttraining Job Monthly Pay											
$600 or less	(16)	(19)	(42)				-01	04	-12	-01	10
$601 or more	(34)	(25)	(31)				+00	-05	17	01	-08
1st Posttraining Job Satisfaction											
Liked job	(37)	(37)	(55)				+00	+00	+00	+00	-00
Didn't like job	(3)	(7)	(18)				*	*	-02	*	*
R^2				.36	.40	.13	.22	.30	.20	.37	.38

[a]The regression estimates in this table are based on numbers of cases which often are marginal in terms of the technical constraints imposed on Multiple Classification Analyses. While obviously unreliable values have been replaced by asterisks (*), the precise reliability of the values shown in this table is unknown. Readers are, therefore, cautioned against interpreting them as precise measures of the relative strengths of effects. This table excludes "no answers."

[b]Includes Professional, Technical, Administrative and Clerical work, predominantly clerical.

APPENDIX TABLE 9

REGRESSION ESTIMATES OF INFLUENCES ON POSTTRAINING WELFARE INDEPENDENCE: VOUCHER COMMITTERS (VC), REGULARS (R), AND VOUCHER NONCOMMITTERS (VN) (In Percentage Points of Deviation from the Grand Mean)[a]

	(N)			Column A: Never on Welfare			Column B: Never on Welfare		Column C: Never on Welfare	
	VC	R	VN	VC	R	VN	VC	R	VC	R
GRAND MEAN (% Never on Welfare)				49	43	12	49	43	49	43
Sex/Program Status										
Men	(24)	(32)	(45)	01	-07	12	02	-07	04	-10
Women, mandatory WIN participant	(14)	(13)	(36)	-09	07	-10	-09	04	-11	-05
Women, volunteer WIN participant	(9)	(19)	(14)	*	16	-12	*	20	*	42
Education										
Less than 12 years	(12)	(22)	(23)	02	-08	-09	-03	-07	02	-06
12 years	(24)	(26)	(48)	06	07	07	07	09	07	10
More than 12 years	(11)	(6)	(24)	-16	*	-05	-13	*	-17	*
Age										
16 to 24 years	(13)	(23)	(26)	12	14	-15	16	13		
25 to 34 years	(22)	(20)	(40)	-04	-25	05	-07	-23		
35 or more years	(12)	(11)	(29)	-06	14	06	-05	15		
Number of Dependents										
0 to 2 dependents	(20)	(38)	(34)	-02	13	01	-06	-06		
3 or more dependents	(27)	(16)	(61)	01	-05	-01	04	14		
Occupational Commitment										
Looked for OJT in any occupation	(18)	(23)	(39)	09	04	-06	14	06		
Looked for OJT in particular occupation	(29)	(31)	(56)	-06	-03	04	-09	-04		
Experienced Autonomy										
High autonomy	(17)	(9)	(20)	10	*	-07	09	*		
Moderate or low autonomy	(30)	(45)	(75)	-05	02	02	-05	02		
Adequacy of Staff Information										
Needed more information	(14)	(22)	(45)	01	-02	-00	-04	-04		
Did not need more information	(33)	(32)	(50)	-00	01	+00	02	03		
Training Occupation										
Professional, Technical, Administrative	(7)	(-)	NA						*	b
Clerical	(13)	(10)	NA						-10	-19
Foremen, Craftsmen, Operatives	(17)	(33)	NA						+00	09
Service	(10)	(11)	NA						11	-09
Size of Employer										
1 to 10 employees	(23)	(28)	NA						-02	-04
11 to 50 employees	(13)	(14)	NA						07	15
51 or more employees	(11)	(12)	NA						-04	-08
Length of Training										
1 to 26 weeks	(27)	(43)	NA						05	-03
27 or more weeks	(20)	(11)	NA						-07	13
Training Completion										
Completed training	(20)	(30)	NA				14	-11	09	14
Dropped out of training	(27)	(24)	NA				-10	14	-06	-17
Immediate Posttraining Activity (1st month)[c]										
Working	(29)	(39)	(41)	18	16	06	15	22	13	30
Looking for work	(10)	(14)	(26)	-41	-25	-06	-33	-30	-37	-35
Out of the Labor Force	(8)	(11)	(28)	*	-11	-02	*	-20	*	-35
Labor Force Behavior Pattern										
Predominantly in Labor Force[c]	(35)	(36)	(53)	08	11	-01	07	11	09	07
Shifting in or out or predominantly out of Labor Force	(12)	(12)	(31)	-23	-36	02	-19	-36	-25	-23
R^2				.45	.41	.24	.47	.45	.44	.42

[a]The regression estimates in this table are based on numbers of cases which often are marginal in terms of the technical constraints imposed on Multiple Classification Analysis. While obviously unreliable values have been replaced by asterisks (*), the precise reliability of the values shown in this table is unknown. Readers are, therefore, cautioned against interpreting them as precise measures of the relative strengths of effects. This table excludes "no answers."

[b]No cases.

[c]Includes cases in other OJT.

APPENDIX TABLE 10

REGRESSION ESTIMATES OF INFLUENCES ON POSTTRAINING WELFARE INDEPENDENCE: VOUCHER COMMITTEE (VC), AND REGIONAL (R), WHO WERE/DID AT SOME TIME ASSIGN TRAINING
(In Percentage Points of Deviation from the Grand Mean)[a]

	(N)		Column A		Column B		Column C	
			Never on Welfare		Never on Welfare		Never on Welfare	
	VC	R	VC	R	VC	R	VC	R
GRAND MEAN (% Never on Welfare)			53	50	53	50	53	50
Sex/Program Status								
Men	(30)	(26)	04	-02	-04	-07	04	-07
Women, mandatory WIN participant	(14)	(10)	-11	-08	-11	02	-18	-00
Women, volunteer WIN participant	(6)	(8)	*	*	*	*	*	*
Education								
Less than 12 years	(11)	(21)	-01	-07	12	-05	-07	-06
12 years	(21)	(18)	07	08	06	05	12	06
More than 12 years	(8)	(5)	*	*	*	*	*	*
Age								
16 to 24 years	(11)	(19)	-04	12				
25 to 34 years	(18)	(16)	06	-23				
35 or more years	(11)	(9)	-05	*				
Number of Dependents								
0 to 2 dependents	(17)	(32)	05	-04				
3 or more dependents	(23)	(12)	-03	11				
Occupational Commitment								
Looked for OJT in any occupation	(14)	(15)	06	05	08	-08	20	01
Looked for OJT in particular occupation	(26)	(29)	-03	-02	-04	00	-11	-01
Experienced Autonomy								
High Autonomy	(16)	(6)	11	*	16	*	09	*
Moderate or low autonomy	(26)	(38)	-06	-00	-08	-01	-05	-01
Adequacy of Staff Information								
Needed more information	(11)	(16)			06	-16	-06	-17
Did not need more information	(29)	(38)			-02	09	01	09
Training Completion								
Completed training	(19)	(28)					30	-04
Dropped out of training	(21)	(16)					-27	07
1st Posttraining Job Occupation								
White collar[b]	(10)	(10)			19	-14	09	-13
Foreman, Craftsmen, Operatives	(15)	(20)			07	15	-04	14
Service	(15)	(14)			-19	-11	-02	-11
1st Posttraining Job Monthly Pay								
$600 or less	(16)	(19)			-20	-08	-21	-10
$601 or more	(24)	(25)			13	06	14	07
1st Posttraining Job Satisfaction								
Liked job	(37)	(37)			-02	-08	-02	-08
Did not like job	(3)	(7)			*	*	*	*
Labor Force Behavior Pattern								
Predominantly in Labor Force[c]	(32)	(39)	12	10	12	06	10	06
Shifting in & out or predominantly out of Labor Force	(8)	(5)	*	*	*	*	*	*
R^2			.27	.37	.37	.47	.55	.48

[a]The regression estimates in this table are based on numbers of cases which often are marginal in terms of the technical constraints imposed on Multiple Classification Analyses. While obviously unreliable values have been replaced by asterisks (*), the precise reliability of the values shown in this table is unknown. Readers are, therefore, cautioned against interpreting them as precise measures of the relative strengths of effects.

[b]Includes Professional, Technical, Administrative and Clerical, predominantly clerical.

[c]Includes cases in other OJT.

APPENDIX B

DESCRIPTION OF SELECTED VARIABLES

APPENDIX B

DESCRIPTION OF SELECTED VARIABLES

Variables which are not self-explanatory and which are composite measures constructed from several components are described in this appendix.

Decision-Making Autonomy

Three interview items were used to construct decision-making autonomy scales:

"Who made the choice on your OJT occupation?"

"How about deciding to go for training rather than immediate placement in a job--who decided that?"

"And how about deciding which specific employers to contact?"

These items were originally coded on a 5-point scale with 0 = Respondent made the decision and 4 = Staff made the decision.

In general, these constitute separate variables in analyses pertaining to WIN entry and training search. In such cases, responses were dichotomized with 0 = Client made the decision and 1 through 4 combined as Client did not make the decision.

In subsequent analyses pertaining to training and posttraining experiences, scores were summed across these three items for each case and the raw, summed scores were categorized as follows:

Category	Summed Score
High Autonomy	0
Moderate Autonomy	1-6
Low Autonomy.	7-12

Labor Force Behavior Patterns

This measure was based on a month-by-month activity calendar covering the period from end of training to the time of interview. For voucher recipients who did not commit their vouchers for training, the end of the search

for training was used as the time point equivalent to end of training. Thus, the base periods for computation of this measure varied from 1 to 20 months, with a median of 8 months for voucher committers, 8-1/2 months for regulars, and 12 months for voucher noncommitters. The criteria for identifying Labor Force Behavior Patterns were:

A. PREDOMINANTLY IN THE LABOR FORCE--Actively looking for work or working 65 percent or more of the time since leaving, or giving up the search for, OJT; i.e.,

$$\frac{\text{total months looking or working}}{\text{total months since OJT}} \geq .65$$

B. PREDOMINANTLY TRAINEE/STUDENT--In institutional vocational training or academic school 65 percent or more of the time since leaving, or giving up the search for, OJT; i.e.,

$$\frac{\text{total months in training or school}}{\text{total months since OJT}} \geq .65$$

C. PREDOMINANTLY OUT OF THE LABOR FORCE--Sick or out of the labor force (at home, caring for family, doing nothing special, etc.) 65 percent or more of the time since leaving, or giving up the search for, OJT; i.e.,

$$\frac{\text{total time sick or OLF}}{\text{total months since OJT}} \geq .65$$

D. PREDOMINANTLY IN OJT--In regular or vouchered OJT <u>other</u> than the first period of OJT for 65 percent or more of the time since leaving, or giving up the search for, the first period of OJT; i.e.,

$$\frac{\text{total time in other OJT}}{\text{total time since first OJT}} \geq .65$$

E. SHIFTING IN AND OUT OF THE LABOR FORCE--Pattern of shifting from one activity to another with no group of activities accounting for at least 65 percent of the time since leaving, or giving up the search for, OJT.

In some cases A and D have been combined under the stub, PREDOMINANTLY IN IN THE LABOR FORCE and B and C have been combined under the stub, PREDOMINANTLY OUT OF THE LABOR FORCE or INACTIVE. When this has occurred, it is so indicated in table footnotes.

<u>Welfare Ratio</u>

This measure is based on a month-by-month calendar of welfare dependency following end of training or, for voucher noncommitters, the end of the search for vouchered OJT. In order to account for differences in level of support, each month on welfare under a partial grant was given a value of 1.00 and each month on welfare under a partial full grant was given a value of 1.67. Because welfare dependency data for regulars were available only for the first 12 months after end of training, Welfare Ratios were computed in two ways:

A. For analyses comparing voucher committers or noncommitters to regulars, the weighted number of months on welfare during the first 12 months out of training was divided by the total number of months out of training--up to a maximum of 12:

$$\text{WELFARE RATIO} = \frac{1(\text{mos. on partial grant}) + 1.67(\text{Mos. on full grant})}{\text{total months out of training}} \leq 12$$

B. For some analyses pertaining to voucher recipients only, it was useful to look at posttraining welfare dependency over a longer run and the total time from end of training until time of interview was used as a base for determining the Welfare Dependency Ratio. In all such cases, the Welfare Ratio is identified as being "over the long run."

$$\text{LONG RUN WELFARE RATIO} = \frac{1\ (\text{Mos. on partial grant}) + 1.67\ (\text{Mos. on full grant})}{\text{total months out of training}}$$

These Welfare Ratios were computed individually for each respondent and categorized as follows:

NEVER ON WELFARE: Welfare Ratio = 0
LOW WELFARE RATIO: Welfare Ratio = 0.01 - 0.99
MODERATE WELFARE RATIO: Welfare Ratio = 1.00 - 1.45
HIGH WELFARE RATIO: Welfare Ratio = 1.46 - 1.67.

Additionally, two aggregated measures of Welfare Ratio have been used:

A. MEAN WELFARE DEPENDENCY RATIO: Mean of individual Welfare Ratios for all Respondents who were on welfare at some time after leaving OJT or giving up the search for OJT.

B. MEAN WELFARE DEMAND RATIO: Mean of individual Welfare Ratios for all Respondents.

APPENDIX C

OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION

APPENDIX C

OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION[a]

(Asterisk indicates occupations in which clients had On-the-Job Training)

PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE

Professional

Doctors, dentist, and veterinarian
Psychologist and psychiatrists
Lawyers and judges
Engineers and architects
Social Scientists
Life and physical scientists
Economists and finance experts
Cost accountants and CPAs (not accountants)
Education officials(include principals)and specialists
Social workers(including child development)
Librarians
Teachers and tutors
Business Executives
Lawmaker, Lobbyist

Subprofessional and Technical

Systems analysts and computer programmers (not computer Operators)
Designers and,artists (free lance or commerical
Airline pilots and traffic controllers, law enforcement
Draftsmen, detailer, surveyer
Photographers
Medical Technicians, dental technicians and hygionists, therapists, nurse dance therapy, chemical lab technicians, occupational therapy
Counselors, psychology and social science BAs, marriage counselors (not job counselors)

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[a]The occupational classification used in this report was constructed to accommodate occupations reported by respondents in the several phases of the Portland voucher project rather than as a comprehensive occupational coding scheme. Additionally, requirements to provide sufficiently large numbers of cases in each of the secondary occupational groups had to be met. The primary and secondary occupational groups are listed in the order of a assumed hierarchy of occupational prestige. The hierarchical arrangement of occupational groups is based on approximations to the group medians derived from 1979 estimated prestige scores for specific occupations contained in Lloyd V. Temme. OCCUPATION: MEANINGS AND MEASURES, Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc. June, 1975, Appendix C.

Radio and TV announcers
Other, proofreader
Paralegal, lawyer's assistant
*Advertising, public information, freelance writer
Entertainers-sports
Science research aide

Managerial, Administrative and Proprietary

Salaried administrators, managers and supervisors Public and nonprofit
Public and nonprofit
Construction, manufacturing and other industries
*Retail trade or services (include hotel-motel), executive steward, producer, director
Other (n.e.c.) salaried managers and administrators office, apartment managers
Self-employed managers, administrators, supervisors
Self-employed (including shop owners), contractors
Other managers and administrators
Insurance and real-estate agents
*Sales representatives, dealers, merchandisers

CLERICAL

High Clerical

*Executive or chief secretaries
*Secretaries (including medical, legal, etc.)
*Bookeepers, accountants, statistical technicians, computer operator, payroll or billing clerk, printing cost estimator
*Bank tellers
*Facilitating jobs: travel agents, job counselor, referral service, insurance claims, interviewers.
Other (including court reporters)

Low clerical

Ticket Agents
*Typists, Keypunchers, office machine operators, switchboard operators
General Clerical, general office
Medical ward clerks, medical records technicians
*Dispatchers, inventory control clerk, orders, postal clerk, shipping clerk stock clerk
*Receptionists, medical receptionists
Other--messenger, insurance claims, hotel desk clerk, library page
Collector

CRAFTSMEN, OPERATIVES AND WORKERS

Foremen, Craftsmen and Kindred

Foremen
Electricians and electronics technicians
*Boilermakers, machinists, pipe-fitters, millwrights, caster, locksmith, instrument man, other fabrication, tool and die maker, turret-lathe set-up operator, layout, brush material preparer
*Carpenters. bricklayers, concrete masons, other construction, painters, woodworking, shop trainee floor layer, carpet layer, sand blasting
Agriculture, forestry, horticulture (include soil testers) waste treatment operator, milker
*Printing, graphics and bookbinding, print-a-sign operator, offset pressman
Other (sprinkler installer, awning, fire alarm, fence erector)

Operative and Kindred

*Transport operators (truck, ambulance driver), bus driver
*Auto and motorcycle mechanics, brake & lock expert
Diesel, aviation and marine mechanics
Mechanical equipment repairmen (office machines, lock & dam operator, air-conditioning/refig., small engines, field service engineer
*Welders, auto-body repairmen, wire-feed operators, foundry, Burr, Grinder plater, polisher, punch press operator, flame cutter, inkmaker, tire repair pot man
*Upholsterers, spray furniture, toilet seat maker
*Craft helpers, electrical helper, electrical lab helper fire extinquisher service man, auto dismanteler.
*Assembly line, factory work, assembler, line checks
Heavy equipment operator, forklift operator
Light equipment operator, warehouseman
Army, other military

SERVICE

Service Workers

*Sales personnel, retail trade, gas station attendants, customer service specialist
Meatcutters
Chefs
Decorators
*Health and medical aides and assistants, orderlies, practical nurses, therapy aides, Social Service Aides, lab assistants
Teachers aides and library aides, babysitter
Beauticians, hairstylists, and barbers, manicurist, cosmetologist
Dog groomers, animal care, veterinary assistant
*Cooks
Bartenders
Cashiers and checkers, grocery clerk
Landscape workers and groundkeepers, plant nursery, interior landscape
*Waitress, hat checker, porter, salad maker, car hop, hotel, restaurant, elevator, cafeteria worker, iceman

Loading trucks, delivery, laborer, parking lot attendant hooking things on crane, unskilled labor, sorting bottles, produce man, clean chickens, car shagger, cut foam rubber

*Pattern cutter, seamstress, shoe repair, tailor, slipcover cutter, knitter's helper

*Janitor, custodian, garbageman, building maintenance cleaners

Laundry

Farm worker

Guards

APPENDIX D

A NOTE ON THE INTERPRETATION OF REGRESSION FINDINGS

APPENDIX D

A NOTE ON THE INTERPRETATION OF REGRESSION FINDINGS

This brief guide to interpretation of dummy variable regression analyses (Multiple Classification Analyses) is offered for readers who may not be familiar with this type of analysis.

The multiple regression technique yields prediction estimates based on a line which best fits the dispersion of all observed values used in the regression equation. In essence, such estimates predict the amount of change in the dependent variable resulting from a given amount of change in each independent variable, net of the effects of all other independent variables included in the regression equations. While cross tabular analyses of gross data are generally limited to the use of only two or three independent variables, multiple regression provides the analyst with ability to estimate the simultaneous effects of a number of factors on a dependent variable of interest, a means by which to estimate the effects of a single factor on the dependent variables in the model, and a way to assess the relative net effects of each factor included in the model.

The usual multiple regression techniques are limited to the use of interval (e.g., income in dollars) or ratio level (e.g. Welfare Ratio) level data. The use of dummy variables allows the inclusion of so-called "categorical" variables such as sex and race. Although a few of the variables used in this study are at the interval or ratio level, we have chosen to categorize those and use dummy variables in all cases. One shortcoming of dummy variable regression, however, is that all computing routines for dummy variable regression analysis require that one dummy variable from each set be omitted. (For example, in the sex/program status set, either male, mandatory female, or volunteer female must be omitted). Consequently, regression coefficients are obtained only for the included variables. These coefficients estimate the expected means of the included groups (e.g., mandatory women and volunteer women)

by comparison with the expected mean for the omitted group (e.g., men). Fortunately, a simple computation can be used to adjust the regression coefficients so that they reflect deviation from the grand mean of the dependent variable as well as to produce the coefficient for the omitted dummy variable (Emanuel Melichar, "Least-Squares Analysis of Economic Survey Data," Papers presented at the annual meetings (1965), American Statistical Association, Social and Economic Statistics Section, 373-385.). The values shown in our tables are the "Melicharized" regression coefficients. The use of this technique, in addition to making the values in our tables deviations from the grand mean, has a consequence for interpretation of our notations that will be explained shortly.

The coefficient for each dummy variable in our tables expresses the magnitude and direction of the percentage point deviation from the grand mean of the dependent variable in question which results from being in the particular category represented by the independent variable, net of the effects associated with all of the other independent variables included in the regression model. Thus, for example (Appendix Table I) 33 percent of all voucher recipients committed their vouchers for OJT. Men deviated from this grand mean by -6 percentage points, net of all the other variables in the equation, mandatory women deviated from the grand mean by +2 percentage points, and volunteer women by +12 percentage points. Thus, we can estimate that mandatory women were 8 percentage points more likely than men to commit their vouchers and 10 percentage points less likely to do so than volunteer women. Alternatively, we can estimate that, all other factors in the equation being equal, 35 percent (33 + 2 = 35) of the mandatory women would have committed their vouchers, net of the effects of all other variables considered.

As another example from the example from the same column, we can note that race had virtually no net effect on the likelihood that voucher recipients would commit their vouchers--the respective, Melicharized regression coefficients for the white and nonwhite persons are -0 and +1.

Now, we must add two cautions. A general rule of thumb is that a multiple regression coefficient should not be considered meaningful beyond a reasonable doubt unless the magnitude of the coefficient is at least twice its standard error. Since we have standard errors only for the basic regression coefficients (i.e., omitting one dummy variable in each set) and do not have standard errors for the Melicharized coefficients

used in the tables, we were unable to apply this test uniformly. Therefore, we cannot make systematic inferences about the statistical significance of the values shown in the tables. We can, however, point to tentative or suggested findings when values are large, especially when particular patterns of difference occur consistently.

Secondly, the reliability of multiple regression estimates is diminished when the distributions of responses on one or more of the variables included in the equation are highly skewed or when the number of cases below 10 and have indicated these unreliable values by the use of asterisks (*). However, the presence of one unreliable coefficient in a regression equation calls into question the reliability of all remaining coefficients in the equation. Consequently, in many of the tables, all of the values shown must be interpreted cautiously on the basis of direction and order of magnitude of differences. Where values or differences in values are noticeably large, something can reasonably be said about the likelihood that real differences existed. But, conclusions about the precise magnitudes of effects should not be made.

We have taken these cautions into account in all of our discussions concerning regression estimates of influences on the various factors relevant to on-the-job training.

APPENDIX E

RESPONDENTS AND NONRESPONDENTS

APPENDIX E

RESPONDENTS AND NONRESPONDENTS

Extent of Nonresponse

Of 345 WIN participants who took vouchers for OJT, 142 were interviewed, yielding a 41 percent response rate. The comparable response rate for particpants in the regular OJT program was 39 percent. Among the voucher recipients, 69 percent of the voucher committers (n=68) and 34 percent of the voucher noncommitters were interviewed.

Reasons for Nonresponse

For the most part, nonresponses resulted from inability of interviewers to locate former WIN participants. Based on sample interview call records for voucher recipients and regulars, we estimate that about 5 percent of the vouchered and 11 percent of the regular nonrespondents were located but refused to be interviewed.

Extensive efforts were made to locate potential respondents. An average of more than three calls was made in attempting to locate nonrespondents and, in a number of cases, more than 6 calls were made. All reasonable means were used to locate people. In some cases, people had moved out of the area, but in many cases, their current whereabouts could not be traced. Normally, the search for a respondent was terminated only when all reasonable means to obtain a current address had failed.

Effects of Nonresponse

Quite frequently, the characteristics of nonrespondents to surveys are unknown. In the study of vouchered OJT in the Portland, Oregon WIN program, however, the availability of official records on WIN participants makes possible the comparison of respondents and nonrespondents to the survey

of WIN participants who took part in the vouchered OJT program or who received OJT in the conventional WIN program. This Appendix describes the differences in the distributions of respondents and nonrespondents, in both the vouchered and regular goups, by demographic characteristics as well as on two outcome measures.

By and large, the demographic characteristics of respondents and nonrespondents were quite similar. The most serious problems created by differences in the distributions of respondents and nonrespondents by demographic charcteristics involve:

- Underrepresentation of men among the vouchered respondents (.7 percentage points below the mean) and, to a lesser extent, among the regulars (6 percentage points below the mean) Table E-1;
- Overrepresentation of mandatory women among the vouchered respondents (7 percentage points above the mean);
- Overrepresentation of people 16-24 years of age (5 percentage points above the mean) and underrepresentation of people between 25 and 34 years of age (5 percentage points below the mean) among regular respondents;
- Overrepresentation of people with 2 dependents (12 percentage points above the mean) and underrepresentation of people with 3 dependents (5 percentage points below the mean) as well as underrepresentation of people with 4 or more dependents (6 percentage points below the mean) among regular respondents.

Substantively, the differences between the distributions of respondents and nonrespondents by sex are considered the most serious because both the occupations and the labor force behavior of men and women tend to differ. Some bias from nonresponse may have been introduced into analyses which utilizes data aggregated across the demographic dimensions, particularly sex.

Respondents and nonrespondents differed markedly in the distribution of voucher recipients who committed and those who did not commit their vouchers. Project records indicate that 19 percent of all voucher recipients committed their vouchers to employers for training. However, 33 percent of the vouchered respondents committed their vouchers for training. Voucher committers are, therefore, seriously overrepresented among the respondents. However, the data used in this report are disaggregated on the voucher commitment dimension for virtually all analyses. As a consequence, the overrepresentation of voucher committers would have serious impact only if voucher committers were markedly different from

TABLE E-1

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS AND NONRESPONDENTS; VOUCHER RECIPIENTS AND REGULARS
(In Percentages)

	Voucher Recipients			Regulars		
	Respondents	Non-Respondents	All	Respondents	Non-Respondents	All
Sex/Program Status						
Men	49	65	59	59	69	65
Mandatory women	34	22	27	24	19	21
Volunteer women	16	13	14	17	12	14
Total %	99	100	100	100	100	100
(N)	(140)	(200)	(340)	(54)	(81)	(135)
Women (Program status unknown)	(2)	(3)	(5)	(-)	(4)	(4)
Education						
Less than 12 years	25	30	28	41	36	38
12 years	51	47	48	48	47	48
More than 12 years	25	23	24	11	17	14
Total %	101	100	100	100	100	100
(N)	(142)	(201)	(343)	(54)	(78)	(132)
(NA)	(-)	(2)	(2)	(-)	(7)	(7)
Race						
White	85	82	83	88	92	91
Nonwhite	15	18	17	12	8	9
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
(N)	(142)	(199)	(341)	(52)	(77)	(129)
(NA)	(-)	(4)	(4)	(2)	(8)	(10)
Age						
16 - 24 years	28	30	29	43	35	38
25 - 34 years	44	47	46	37	46	42
35 years or more	29	23	25	20	19	20
Total %	101	100	100	100	100	100
(N)	(142)	(201)	(343)	(54)	(79)	(133)
(NA)	(-)	(2)	(2)	(-)	(6)	(6)
Number of Dependents						
None	-	2	1	-	3	2
1 dependent	10	12	11	21	21	21
2 dependents	29	26	27	49	28	37
3 dependents	30	31	31	19	28	24
4 or more dependents	31	30	30	11	21	17
Total %	100	101	100	100	101	101
(N)	(139)	(198)	(337)	(53)	(78)	(131)
(NA)	(3)	(5)	(8)	(1)	(7)	(8)

noncommitters on other relevant characteristics. At least with respect to demographic characteristics, the voucher committers and noncommitters were much alike--the only noticeable difference is a slight overrepresentation of mandatory women (6 percentage points above the mean) among the voucher committers (Table E-2).

A more serious problem is introduced by the overrepresentation of training completers among voucher committing and regular respondents. Project records indicate that 38 percent of the voucher committers completed training, but training completers represent 43 percent of the voucher committing respondents. Similarly, project records show 33 percent of the regular OJT trainees completing training, but 56 percent of the regular respondents completed training. Thus, training completers are overrepresented among the voucher committers and especially the regulars who provided data for this report. Since training completion is an important predictor of such outcomes as working immediately after training and, less directly, subsequent desirable outcomes, it must be assumed that the prevalence of desirable outcomes is somewhat inflated in our data, more so for regulars than for voucher committers.

TABLE E-2

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS; VOUCHER COMMITERS AND VOUCHER NONCOMMITTERS
(In Percentages)

	Voucher Committers	Voucher Noncommitters	All
Sex/Program Status			
Men	51	48	49
Mandatory women	30	37	34
Volunteer women	19	15	16
Total %	100	100	99
(N)	(47)	(93)	(140)
Women (Program Status Unknown)	(-)	(2)	(2)
Education			
Less than 12 years	26	24	25
12 years	51	50	51
More than 12 years	23	25	25
Total %	100	99	101
(N)	(47)	(95)	(142)
Race			
White	83	85	84
Nonwhite	17	15	16
Total %	100	100	100
(N)	(47)	(95)	(142)
Age			
16 - 24 years	28	27	27
25 - 34 years	47	42	44
35 years or more	26	31	29
Total %	101	100	100
(N)	(47)	(95)	(142)
Number of Dependents			
1 dependent	11	10	10
2 dependents	33	27	29
3 dependents	28	31	30
4 or more dependents	28	32	31
Total %	100	100	100
(N)	(46)	(93)	(139)
(NA)	(1)	(2)	(3)